The Outlook

VOLUME 94 FEBRUARY 26, 1910 NUMBER 9

PUBLISHED WEEKLY BY THE OUTLOOK COMPANY, 287 FOURTH AVENUE, NEW YORK
LAWRENCE F. ABBOTT, PRESIDENT. WILLIAM B. HOWLAND, TREASURER. KARL V. S. HOWLAND, SECRETARY
REGULAR WEEKLY NUMBERS, FIVE CENTS. MAGAZINE NUMBERS (FOURTH ISSUE OF EACH MONTH) FIFTEEN CENTS. YEARLY SUBSCRIPTION — FIFTY-TWO ISSUES — THREE DOLLARS IN ADVANCE. ENTERED AS SECOND-CLASS MATTER AT THE NEW YORK POST-OFFICE

CONTENTS

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The President's Speech on Lincoln's Day 409
Corporation Publicity 412
What of Alaska? 413
Buyers and Sellers of Laws 412
Mayor Gaynor and the New York Water Supply 415
Education in Citizenship 416
The Cleveland Traction Question 417
Princeton and the Proctor Gift 417
The Thaw Trials 419
Dr. Trudeau Honored 420
The Conservation Movement in Canada 421
The British Premier's Task 422
Mr. Roosevelt in the Sudan 424
Not April 30 but December 1 423
Postal Savings Banks 425
A Danger Signal 426
Lenten Meditations: The Living God .. 427
The Spectator 428
The Saint-Gaudens Memorial to Phillips Brooks 430
Wanted: A Government for Alaska ... 431
By Atherton Brownell
A Commonwealth Ruled by Farmers .. 441
By Frederic C. Howe
A Golden Wedding (Poem) 450
By Emily Huntington Miller
The Ghost Society and What Came of It 457
By H. Addington Bruce
Pericles of Smyrna and New York 463
By Walter E. Weyl
The Japanese Ambassador 473
By W. E. Griffis
Vermeer of Delft 476
By E. V. Lucas
Edison and the Incandescent Light 487
By Frank Marshall White
The Christ Child (Poem) 496
By Emily Niles Huyck
Better Farming, Better Business, Better Living 497
By Sir Horace Plunkett
The New Books 502

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The Outlook

FEBRUARY 26, 1910

LYMAN ABBOTT, Editor-in-Chief. HAMILTON W. MABIE, Associate Editor
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Contributing Editor

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THE PRESIDENT'S SPEECH ON LINCOLN DAY

During this period when the United States Government is attacking the problem of controlling organized wealth, there are two classes of people who seem to be in constant fear. One consists of those who fear the consequent disturbance to business; the other consists of those who fear the overpowering influence of corporations even upon the Government itself. In his address before the Republican Club of New York City on Lincoln Day the President undertook to reassure both of these classes. On the one side, he declared that "no one responsible for a Government like ours would foolishly run amuck in business and destroy values and confidence just for the pleasure of doing so." And he added that "no one has a motive as strong as the Administration in power to cultivate and strengthen business confidence and business prosperity." On the other hand, he immediately followed this statement with the announcement that it rests with the National Government to enforce the law, "and if the enforcement of the law is not consistent with the present method of carrying on business, then it does not speak well for the present methods of conducting business, and they must be changed to conform with the law." Although this has been said repeatedly by the President, as it was said by his predecessor time and again, this repetition at this time, when criticism from both directions has been aimed at the Administration, comes with special weight. In general, Mr. Taft's speech was a review of the acts of his Administration and of Congress in the light of his party's pledges. On the subject of the tariff his words were virtually a reiteration of what he had said soon after the Tariff Bill was enacted. He repeated that it made a downward revision, that it is "the best customs law that has ever been passed," and that "the Republican party has substantially complied with its promise in respect to the tariff." In support of this statement he quoted figures provided by the Bureau of Statistics showing that the Payne Law has secured an average reduction in tariffs of 2.94 per cent of the value of the goods, that the gross imports of goods admitted free has materially increased, and that the value of articles on which duties has been decreased is five times as much as the value of articles on which duties have been increased. He repeated the statement that the woolen schedule was a substantial defect; but he again called attention to the maximum and minimum feature, the corporation tax, and the Tariff Commission as elements of enormous value. He discussed in turn the postal savings bank plan, inter-State commerce, the revision of procedure in Federal courts, Statehood for Arizona and New Mexico, conservation, economy in administration, the anti-trust law, and Federal incorporation. He was frank in his acknowledgment of the difficulties now facing the party. It is not without significance that the only element within his party which he undertook to criticise is that which regards the specific measures introduced into Congress as inadequate to the thorough carrying out of the policies to which the party is pledged. He comforted himself with the thought that, however great the dissensions might be in the Republican party, there was no reason for discouragement concerning its political prospects when he contemplated the condition of the Democratic party. That may be true; but that does not interest The Outlook, and we do not think it greatly interests the general public. The real question is this: Have we reason to be encouraged in a hope that, under the present Administration and the present Congress, the public interest will be effectively preserved against special interests? And on that question the public attitude is one of mingled hope and apprehension. The President evidently regards the tariff legislation as a triumph, and accepts as a necessary incident to tariff legislation the clash and scramble of private interests. If the President is right in this respect, and we are inclined to think that he is, his attitude is an unanswerable condemnation of the protective system. We hope that the President's confidence in the power of the Tariff Commission to put future tariff laws on a sound basis of public interest will be justified, but on this subject also the public is by no means as confident in its optimism as is the President.

ARE WE TO HAVE CORPORATION PUBLICITY?

Last week the much-discussed Corporation Tax entered upon a new phase of its existence, for, temporarily at least, it was shorn of its publicity feature. The Corporation Tax was passed last summer by Congress as a part of the Payne Act. Under its operation corporations must report annually under oath to the Federal Government their total paid-up capital stock outstanding, their total bonded and other indebtedness, their gross income from all sources for the year, their total expenses for the year, their total losses for the year, their total interest paid within the year, their taxes paid within the year, and their net income or profits for the year. Furthermore, and particularly, these statements "shall be filed in the office of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue [in the Treasury Department], and shall constitute public records and be open to inspection as such." Attorney-General Wickersham, the author of the corporation tax provision of the Tariff Bill, has said of it:

> It seems to me that uniform returns of this character from every class of corporations will constitute a body of information which should be available to stockholders and creditors and those dealing with corporations, and which, so far from being an injury to the corporations, should tend to promote confidence in those worthy of confidence and to prevent fraud by those that are not. I think it will help enormously in improving the estimation in which American securities are held abroad, and it will afford information of some accuracy which will enable the Government—State and Federal—to deal more intelligently with the problem of controlling abuses in corporate management than is now possible with the imperfect and unreliable information at present available.

Commenting on the new tax, The Outlook declared it to be the most radical and, in some respects, the most important feature of the Payne Act—"indeed, it is not improbable that it may have a more revolutionary effect, in behalf of the public welfare, upon American commerce and finance than any other statute of recent times. If sustained by the Supreme Court, it will give the National Government an unprecedented power in controlling the trusts." In this comment The Outlook had of course in mind a principal element in this Federal power, namely, the publicity feature, providing that corporation returns should be open to inspection. What is meant by "returns"? All the documents connected therewith? President Taft construes the law to mean that the returns of corporations, "original and corrected, not the documents and evidence taken upon investigation, should be open to inspection." But to open the returns as so defined to public inspection means an enormous increase of work in the Internal Revenue Bureau. First, the returns of nearly 400,000 corporations must be indexed. Then they must be displayed. They must be housed, as President Taft said, "in rooms convenient of access for the public." Moreover, very many new clerks must be provided to arrange and protect the returns. Last summer Congress appropriated the sum of $100,000 "for the expenses of collecting the Corporation Tax." It said nothing about publishing the returns or expending any part of the appropriation within the District of Columbia. Only last week was it discovered and made public that a law passed in 1882 prohibits the employment of persons within the District of Columbia by any executive department or subordinate bureau except as specifically appropriated for by law. The Treasury Department therefore appealed to President Taft for an opinion on this point also. The President replied, holding that the intention of Congress in passing the Corporation Tax feature was to make the returns accessible to the public; he regrets the oversight of Congress to provide specially for this; and he recommends that Congress now appropriate the sum of $50,000 for this specific purpose, especially as all of last summer's appropriation is necessary for use outside the District of Columbia.

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WILL CONGRESS ACT? What will Congress do? Very many critics declare that it will do nothing, and thus give corresponding gratification to the host of small manufacturers and corporation managers who have protested against revealing their reports and returns and trade secrets to their rivals, because in that event the greater corporations would crush the smaller. Until the present condition is rectified, therefore, the reports and returns from corporations will be treated merely as internal revenue returns. They will be accessible only to the corporations and their attorneys, or to persons authorized by the President or the Secretary of the Treasury. In other words, any person other than the taxpayer making the return, or his duly appointed agent or attorney, who desires to see it, may make application to the Secretary of the Treasury, who, in his discretion, will, on proper showing of cause, approve the request. Thus approved, it is to be presented to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue, who will permit the return in question to be seen by the applicant on such conditions as may be imposed by the head of the Treasury Department. Quite aside from the desire to please the host of small corporation managers, however, it is possible that Congress is now not unwilling to postpone the actual operation of the publicity feature until the Supreme Court has an opportunity to pass upon the law's constitutionality; half a dozen cases are already pending before the courts, and within a few weeks should come up for argument. But whether Congress acts or does not act, the attention of the country has now been called to a forgotten law, and people are inquiring how often that act has been evaded in carrying out other laws. In our judgment, there are plausible and perhaps quite adequate reasons why the private affairs of private corporations should not be open to the inspection of the public, and so of their competitors. But we agree with Mr. Wickersham that it would be a distinct advantage to the public and to all honestly managed corporations whose stock is sold in the open market to have so much of their financial affairs open to the public as would enable the public to form some approximate estimate of the value of their stock.

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WHAT OF ALASKA? That something must be done to establish more orderly, stable, and civilized conditions in Alaska, as well as to make impossible the wasteful exploitation and monopolization of its enormous natural wealth, everybody must concede. What shall it be? There is now before Congress a bill in charge of Senator Beveridge, Chairman of the Senate Committee on Territories, which embodies one constructive proposal. It represents the views of the President on the problem. By his long experience as the administrative head of the Philippines, Mr. Taft is exceptionally equipped to understand problems of government under what may be called colonial conditions, and to frame a definite plan for dealing with such problems. Mr. Taft's plan is that of a commission form of government. On another page in this issue of The Outlook Mr. Atherton Brownell describes those conditions in Alaska which have made the commission form of government seem particularly adapted to Alaska's needs. Readers of Mr. Brownell's article will find there a strong and persuasive statement of the facts which render any form of self-government by the people of Alaska as a whole difficult, if not virtually impossible. It has been pointed out in the course of the discussion over this bill, and particularly by Senator Borah, that this plan is an adaptation of the Philippine form of government to a community, or rather a vast region, in which Philippine conditions do not obtain. Men like Senator Borah also feel that this plan does not provide that measure of self-government which such communities of Americans as are to be found in Alaska ought to exercise. It is also stated that since such a region, richly endowed with undeveloped wealth and sparsely populated, attracts men in control of great aggregations of capital who are too often unscrupulous in the exercise of the power their wealth brings them, and who almost invariably act contrary to the public interest unless they are vigorously controlled by a strong government, there is danger that the welfare of those people of Alaska who are living there, and expect to remain, will be submerged in the interest of the great exploiters of wealth. It is further said that a commission appointed by the President is more likely to be impressed with the importance of encouraging vast capitalistic enterprises than with the welfare of the people whom these capitalistic projects have drawn to the Territory. These people, it is said, moreover, are Americans, accustomed to modes of self-government in the communities in which they have been born and bred, and are not to be regarded as untutored and dependent people. Scattered though these people are in various parts of Alaska, they are grouped together in communities, and are therefore not to be regarded as isolated individuals. Mr. Brownell's appreciation of what corporate enterprise has been able to do in Alaska is hardly an answer to the queries of those who inquire, What about the welfare of these American communities in Alaska?

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LEGISLATION FOR ALASKA

Details of such a bill as is now before Congress should be determined by experts and close students, and cannot possibly be settled in the public press; but there are principles which we believe such a bill ought to embody, and which can be ignored only at the risk of future trouble and possible disaster. First, direct legislation for the Alaskan population should be yielded by Congress to other hands. It is no reflection upon Congress to say that it is not so constituted as to be fitted to act as the legislature of such a remote and extensive region as Alaska. If there is danger, under the best circumstances, that vast special interests shall have undue weight in the government of such a district, that danger is greatly increased when the government of the district is in the hands of a cumbersome body without special knowledge of the needs of the district and with no responsibility toward its people. Second, there should be some kind of Federal control exercised under the authority of Congress by a commission chosen by the President. Third, there should be some means created by which the Americans in Alaska could express their wishes and present their case in any issue, and also could exercise a watch upon the actions of the commission, and appeal to the Nation in case of necessity. Whether this could be done by enabling them to have representatives on the commission, or whether it should be done by the formation of a separate legislative branch, we are not prepared to say; but that these Americans in Alaska should not only have some measure of local self-government, but also some influence in or at least upon a Territorial government, we most emphatically believe. Fourth, until there develops in Alaska a community acceptable as a sovereign State, the delegate from Alaska to Congress should not have a vote in Congress. There is no reason why Alaska should have any more share in the government of the United States at large than other Territories. Fifth, control of the natural resources of Alaska should not be so committed to any commission as to pass beyond the power of Congress. Whatever authority the commission may be granted for the conservation of such resources, it should not be extended so as to include authority unqualifiedly to dispose of those resources. Not merely the people of Alaska, but also the people of the whole United States, are interested in the development of this wealth, and should retain their right to control it.

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BUYERS AND SELLERS OF LAWS

From the trial of a single legislator charged with selling his vote and influence for cash the investigation before the New York Senate bids fair to grow into a revelation of widespread corrupt practices in the Legislature. Last week The Outlook told of the charges made by Senator

Conger that Jotham P. Allds in 1901 accepted $1,000 for preventing legislation regarded by bridge-building companies as hostile. The cross-examination of Senator Conger brought out the fact that two or three joint funds were raised in following years among these companies for political "protection" at Albany. The names of Samuel F. Nixon (formerly the Speaker of the House) and of Jean L. Burnett, both now dead, were given by Mr. Conger as those of the other two members of the Legislature who received cash bribes in the same manner as Mr. Allds. It became known also that Governor Hughes intends to make thorough inquiry into the charges that the State was shamefully swindled in its purchases of forest land in the Adirondacks, and that Mr. Allds had been one of the lawyers concerned in these sales of lands. Thereupon a most sweeping resolution was introduced into the Legislature enlarging the scope of the investigation to include inquiry into any funds designed for corrupt purposes, no matter when, how, or by whom raised and spent. Public opinion should be keen to keep the Senate from allowing the investigation to be diverted from the definite and tangible to rumors and suspicions. It should be remembered, on the other hand, that this is not a criminal trial, but an investigation. Its object should be as extensive as the corruption which has existed. That an investigation can be extensive and yet at the same time definite and effective was shown by the Insurance Investigation in New York. The fullest possible light should be thrown on all the byways and hidden places of legislative corruption. It used to be said by cynical observers that one compensating element in the single boss system in State politics was that such a boss was at least able to protect innocent commercial interests from blackmailing "hold-ups," and that it was better to pay tribute to a party fund than to buy off one irresponsible "striker" only to fall a victim to a new one. If rumor is to be believed, the history of the New York Legislature in the past has been about as bad when the boss-ship has been single-headed as when it has been, so to speak, in commission. It is a matter of congratulation that the present Legislature is anxious to bring about a disclosure of the full truth about the past, and to clear itself from the imputation of upholding any members who may have taken part in disgraceful bargainings.

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MAYOR GAYNOR AND THE NEW YORK WATER SUPPLY Three separate and distinct administrative organizations manage the water supply of New York City. The permanent municipal organization—the Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity—corresponds to the ordinary Water Department in a city government. The other two organizations were formed for specific purposes. The first is the Aqueduct Commission, created to build and finish certain dams and reservoirs and an aqueduct in the Croton Valley. This Aqueduct Commission was created by State law in 1883, and was to continue in existence until the work was finished. For years it has had no real work to do, but naturally it has not found its work really finished as yet; for its members would in that case have lost their office. Mayor Gaynor has dismissed the present Commissioners, under the authority given him to discharge any city official within six months of the beginning of his mayoralty term, and in their place has appointed men instructed to wind up the affairs of the Commission within two months. This vigorous and effective way of dealing with a body that has outgrown its usefulness has received almost universal praise, and certainly deserves the commendation of every citizen who believes that an economical form of government is a matter of public morals. The remaining body dealing with New York's water supply is the Board of Water Supply. This was created by act of legislature to construct a necessary reservoir and aqueduct to bring water from the Catskill Mountains to New York City. This Board has undertaken one of the most difficult and stupendous of modern engineering tasks, and has gone about its work in a way to excite not only the admiration of engineering authorities, but also the commendation of those who believe in efficient municipal management of municipal business. Mayor Gaynor has written to this Board a sharp letter regarding the manner in which it has raised certain salaries, and he has informed them that, on account of the press of public business, "I have not yet been able to take up the question of your past and present expenditures and other things which I have in mind in respect to the performance of your duties." During his campaign Mr. Gaynor gave evidence of a disposition to accuse this Board of extravagance and mismanagement, and his supporters attempted to make capital by charging it with deeds for which it had had no responsibility whatever. It is earnestly to be hoped that Mayor Gaynor's satisfaction in the effect of reforms which he has already achieved will not lead him to act unadvisedly in matters where reform is not called for. The demoralization in public business that follows unjust accusation of men doing their duty as chiefs or subordinates in public administration is virtually as great as that which follows actual corruption. So far, Mayor Gaynor's conduct of his office has refuted those who expected his impulsive temperament to get the better of his judgment. We hope that it will continue to do so.

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EDUCATION IN CITIZENSHIP

Before ex-Mayor Taylor, of San Francisco, went out of office he asked a committee of public-spirited citizens to investigate the situation which gave rise to the series of criminal prosecutions which have been known in current literature as "the graft prosecutions." The committee consisted of a leading lawyer, a prominent business man, one of the foremost Presbyterian clergymen in the State, Mr. William Kent (whose civic work in Chicago will be remembered), the Dean of one of the medical colleges, a conservative labor leader, and a Roman Catholic priest. Such a committee was securely above any suspicion of willful misstatement, hasty judgment, or the charge of being disgruntled or irresponsible agitators. The careful and thorough report which this committee presented some time ago made drastic recommendations. One was to the effect that a law should be enacted making it a crime for any newspaper to publish as news "any matters for which compensation is directly or indirectly paid, or agreed to be paid, unless the fact that such compensation has been paid, or agreed to be paid, is indicated by some plainly distinguishing mark next the news so printed." It also urged that "laws should be enacted for the cancellation of franchises procured by fraud or crime of the owners of the franchises, or of their predecessors in interest." The committee state that the trial of Mr. Calhoun had disclosed that there was a considerable number of citizens who, when examined under oath as to their qualifications for jury service, complacently declared that they would not convict a man for bribery, however convincing the facts, if, since his crime, he had successfully broken a strike which was threatening investments. A system of public education which produces such men holding such views must be radically defective in both its ethical and political teaching. Looking at the causes of civic decay, the report declares: "No child should be permitted to leave the grammar school until he has had thoroughly instilled into him a strong sense of his obligation to the State to set aside all prejudice or private interest and act as juryman in any case in which he may be summoned. He should be taught that this obligation is sacred, and that its performance is the highest kind of public service, outranking the mere physical courage and devotion of a soldier." This is an important truth in civic education, and was well put by Professor Arthur W. Dunn, who is in charge of the Department of Civics of the Indianapolis public schools, at the Cincinnati meeting of the National Municipal League. He said: "We must get away from the notion that we are training the child to be a citizen in the future. We must start out with the idea that the child is now a citizen. It is a mistake to think that the child is *going to be* a citizen, because he is a citizen now. He is a citizen, perhaps, with simple relations to the community life; and what we are doing is to take this individual with these simple relations to life and extend these relations throughout the community life as he proceeds. The child should learn at the very outset that he is going to school because the community expects that by doing that very thing he is learning to become a better citizen and qualifying himself to perform civic service." Among the recommendations of the San Francisco commission are these: That non-partisan municipal elections should be established, that there should be a separate tribunal of a personal character for the judicial determination of the rates and charges of municipal utilities, that franchises procured by fraud should be canceled, and that the law of evidence should be so changed as to compel corporations to give evidence against themselves. Whatever practical or political obstacles may be found to exist as to some of the individual remedies proposed, the spirit and purport of this report are admirable and may well be of suggestive value to other cities.

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THE CLEVELAND TRACTION SITUATION SETTLED

Last week Cleveland's long traction war came to an end. Three-cent fare went into operation, and, what is more important, a sound system went into operation. In season and out of season, with signal ability as a street railway expert, as a municipal officer, as a political manager, and as a popular orator, Mr. Johnson waged a strikingly vigorous, if at times ill-advised, campaign. The Outlook has commented on it from time to time, commending it whenever it contended for the principle of popular management of public utilities, and, in especial, for the community's control of its thoroughfares, though never indorsing Mr. Johnson personally. The ex-Mayor has gained a fight for low fares, and his opponents have gained a system of street car transportation to be operated at cost, but not at less than cost. Aside from this fundamental economic defect of Mr. Johnson's plan, its actual operation was in practice so crude that general confusion and public condemnation resulted. This was confirmed at the polls by the referendum election of October, 1908, the referendum of August, 1909, and the municipal election of last November, at which Mr. Johnson lost the mayoralty which he had held for four terms. He also lost last week's referendum election, and by the largest majority ever given to a public measure in Cleveland. The majority was justified, for the Tayler plan, which Mr. Johnson opposed, preserves every principle for which he had pleaded and avoids the pitfalls which were his undoing. It provides that a twenty-five-year franchise shall be given to the Cleveland Railway Company in return for street car service under control of the city, at cost, plus six per cent return to the shareholders on their investment. For the first eight months the fare is to be three cents, with one cent charge for transfer. If this rate of fare is found insufficient to provide the quality of service demanded by the public, a higher rate may be charged for a further experimental period of eight months. The maximum rate of fare allowable during the term of the grant is four cents cash, seven tickets for twenty-five cents, with a charge of a cent for transfers. Out of the company's earnings a street railway commissioner is to be paid a salary and expenses ample enough to secure an expert able to detect any effort towards manipulation on the company's part or any demagogic unfairness on the City Council's part. He is to act as the city's adviser in the regulation of service and fares. He is to have perpetual access to the company's books. Thus the Cleveland problem has been rationally adjusted. Mr. Johnson opposed this adjustment. Time was when the people would have followed him. But they no longer consider his leadership sound. As a fourth vote against him, last week's large majority is significant, for the special election offered none of the incentives ordinarily operating to bring out voters in municipal, State, or National contests.

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PRINCETON AND THE PROCTOR GIFT

When a university takes action that causes it to forfeit a million dollars, some principle must be at stake. Princeton University had the opportunity of receiving a gift of five hundred thousand dollars supplemented by an equal amount in smaller gifts. The Trustees of the University have been painstaking and deliberate in asking of the donor just what conditions accompanied the gift; and now they have received word that the offer of the gift has been withdrawn. Consequently friends of the University have become divided into two camps, mutually separated by warmth of feeling. What are the facts? Some years ago a plan was prepared for a graduate school at Princeton. As stated in a book by Dean West, of Princeton, and indorsed in general terms by President Wilson, it attracted the attention and approval of a wealthy alumnus of the College, Mr. William Cooper Proctor. In a letter written to Dean West in May of last year, Mr. Proctor offered to give five hundred thousand dollars in furtherance of this plan, provided an equal sum were raised by May 1 of this year, provided also the plan were carried out as outlined in the book, and provided further that the proposed site were abandoned, and, to quote his words, "some other site be chosen which shall be satisfactory to me." After a visit to Princeton in June Mr. Proctor declared that either one of two sites, known respectively as Merwick and the Golf Links, would be satisfactory. When the question of site was thus definitely put before the University authorities, it furnished the occasion for the expression of two diverse views as to the character of the proposed graduate school. According to one view, held by President Wilson and a majority of the special faculty committee chosen to report on the question, the graduate school should be unmistakably a part of the University, closely associated with the College, and therefore situated at the center of University activity; it should be so placed that it would easily come under the administrative control of the University, that it would share in the student life and be accessible to undergraduates, and that its students in turn could find easy access to the laboratories, libraries, and other equipment of the College. Those who held this view felt that the two sites approved by the donor were so far removed from the center of the University that the acceptance of either one would create not only a gap between the graduates and the undergraduates, but would create an artificial chasm between groups of graduate students themselves. There are many students, it is held by those who take this view, who would not be able to afford the cost of living in a residential hall and would therefore have to live elsewhere. If the graduate school is placed at a distance, these poorer students would be practically excluded from the benefits of the common rooms and the social life of the place. The consequent distinction between well-to-do and poor would be most deplorable. Such a distinction could, under those conditions, be avoided only by adopting a policy of subsidizing all graduate students, which would not only be expensive but would, as the experience of theological seminaries has shown, lower the morale and quality of the graduate student body.

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A GRADUATE SCHOOL WITH A GRADUATE TONE

According to the view of Dean West and Professor Hibben, the minority of the Committee, which is also the view of Mr. Proctor, the residence hall of the graduate school ought to be removed from "undergraduate comings and goings" so as to create a "distinct graduate tone." Those who hold this view assert that this separation of the graduates from the rest of the University would not prevent a central administrative control, for that must continue, or require separate laboratories or libraries, since their cost would be prohibitive. They moreover argue that the experience with the graduates who have been for four years at Merwick shows that fears of evil consequences are groundless; and they cite the unanimous opinion of the graduate students themselves and the resident professor in proof. They also urge that there ought to be no such chasm within the graduate body as the majority fears, for, they say, all the graduate students ought to live in a common environment, and those who are financially so straitened that they cannot afford the minimum rates in a residential hall will be forced to live under such inferior conditions as to injure bodily and mental welfare. The poorest should enjoy the same advantages as the rest, and should live in the same decent comfort: "to lower the tone or plane of living is not the way to accomplish this." Moreover, they declare that the Golf Links site is not very distant, anyway. It should be added that the original plan on which Mr. Proctor's gift was based did not involve a site removed from the College. This idea of a site at a distance is confessedly an afterthought on the part of the minority. Indeed, in his note of approval of Dean West's plan, President Wilson distinctly speaks of the proposed graduate school as "placed in the midst of our campus."

THE GRAVER QUESTION INVOLVED

This matter of site is, of course, of great importance. As the Committee of Trustees appointed to consider the question of Mr. Proctor's offer says, time can change ideals and ameliorate evils, "but time will not transfer a building from one location to another." Besides the matter of site, however, there is another and even graver question. When the offer was made, there was naturally some uncertainty as to the meaning of the stipulation that the graduate school should be established along the lines laid down in Dean West's book. Did this mean that the University authorities, in accepting the gift, would be bound rigidly by that plan? Did it also mean that the authorities would be bound to place Dean West at the head of the school, as their action on a previous occasion implied that they might do? The marked difference of opinion that has arisen between Dean West and the majority of the Faculty Committee on the graduate school naturally raised these questions, for apparently the University authorities are taking a different view of this school from that now held by Dean West, and they did not want blindly to commit themselves to some one else's rather than to their own views of what is best for Princeton. When the Committee of Trustees wrote to Mr. Proctor asking that the conditions be made plain, they received from him in reply a letter reasserting his views as to site, declaring that the letter from the Committee of the Trustees indicated that the authorities were not clear as to their plans, and finally withdrawing his offer. We congratulate Princeton upon having a President and a Board of Trustees who are willing to incur the reproach of forfeiting a million dollars rather than accept even a generous and disinterested gift without full knowledge of what it involves; who believe that it is better not to have a graduate school at all than to have one that is subject to any peril of lowered scholarship; who are not willing to consent to any plan until they are convinced that it will not separate the well-to-do students from those who are poor; and who insist that the control of the University shall not be transferred to any one, however benevolent, but shall be retained by the responsible authorities. Unless we greatly mistake the spirit of the Princeton alumni, they will show in some unmistakable manner their strong approbation of the course followed by President Wilson and the Trustees.

THE THAW TRIALS

The report of the special committee appointed by the New York State Bar Association to consider the commitment and discharge of the criminally insane is a tonic piece of writing, which finds all the illustration it needs in the two trials of Thaw, the first trial constituting probably the greatest travesty of proper judicial procedure known in the whole history of the country. The report says of the first trial, "It degenerates into a disgraceful affair, and a confused jury finds itself unable to agree." After referring to the second trial, which resulted in the verdict of acquittal on the ground of insanity and the sending of the prisoner to the State Asylum for the Criminal Insane, the report does not hesitate to characterize in strong terms the attempt to get Thaw out of the asylum by those who first swore him out of jail on the ground of insanity, and were now attempting to swear him out of the asylum on the ground of sanity; and expresses the fear that it is a mere question of time and money when this particular murderer will be set free to direct his homicidal inclinations against some other citizen who has already fallen or may fall under his displeasure. This is very plain talk, but not too plain; and in view of the incessant writs of habeas corpus, there ought to be very plain and authoritative protests on this subject. Thaw is a dangerous person, and to liberate him would be to endanger the life of any man or woman in the community. He is a lunatic of the worst kind, for he is a degenerate; and while the community has great sympathy for his family, the endeavor to secure his freedom has now gone so far as to constitute a menace to the entire community. The Thaw case has been in every way a scandal of the most shocking kind. It was not only a gross violation of sound legal procedure, but the salacious reports circulated through the newspapers, with the endeavor to confuse the mind of the public about the plain facts of the case, have been among the most demoralizing influences of our time. It is a shocking thing that, in a civilized community, the life and doings of a man of Thaw's low mentality and utter insignificance as a human being should fill columns of the most respectable journals, morning after morning, month after month. What must be the intellectual caliber of people who are really interested in such a creature? The New York State Bar Association, in characterizing this case as a disgrace in the administration of criminal law, the expert testimony as a shame to the medical profession, and Thaw as a degenerate with homicidal inclinations whose freedom would endanger other lives, has rendered great service to the community.

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REMEDIES PROPOSED By way of remedy the report proposes the abolition of the defense of insanity and the submission to the jury of a single question: "Did the accused do the forbidden deed?" The report continues: "If he did not, he is innocent; if he did, he is guilty, and with the state of his mind at that time the jury has nothing to do. The point we make here is that, however legally right under existing legal concepts, it is really sociologically wrong to find a man not guilty on the ground of insanity." An insane murderer ought not to forfeit his life, but he ought to forfeit his liberty. Why should he be acquitted on the ground of his insanity and then be allowed to go at large on the ground of his sanity? Having proved a man a dangerous person, society must protect itself against a repetition of his criminal tendencies. The report might have added that the introduction of the defense of temporary insanity, to which has been given the ridiculous term "brainstorm," has had a most demoralizing effect and has introduced a pernicious and unreal distinction into the criminal law. A brainstorm is a general term which covers the temporary madness of a man who allows his anger to run away with him. To hold a man irresponsible during a brainstorm is practically to maintain that a man is not responsible for losing his self-control. No more vicious element was ever introduced into jurisprudence. The report suggests that the law be so amended that a person confined in a private asylum may ask for a writ of habeas corpus at any time and without supporting affidavits, but that a person confined in any State Hospital for the Insane, or a State Hospital for Insane Criminals, or a State Hospital for Insane Convicts, can apply for a writ of habeas corpus only upon a written, verified petition, accompanied by a certificate under oath by two qualified medical examiners in lunacy, who shall make affidavit that the person is sane and give their reasons, and then the application for a writ may be made to any court having jurisdiction. If these changes were made, the number of proceedings which may now be taken to secure the freedom of an insane criminal, which are so many that it is often a mere question of time and money when a murderer may be set free, would be wiped out of existence.

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DR. TRUDEAU HONORED Thirty-two years ago Dr. Edward L. Trudeau, a young physician whose very promising professional future had been suddenly overshadowed by tuberculosis, went to the little village of Saranac Lake. He found a little hamlet of a dozen houses and a sawmill, forty-two miles from a railway. Twenty-five years ago he built a two-room shack on a mountain-side overlooking the Saranac River, in which he placed two men struggling with the insidious disease, to try the experiment of out-of-doors living under conditions which for ten years he had been working out. From this small beginning of his career as an original investigator and as a leader in the fight against tuberculosis has grown the Adirondack Cottage Sanitarium at Trudeau, a little station not far from the village of Saranac Lake. Twenty years ago Dr. Trudeau had a small handmade laboratory in his house, and in a fortunate hour an exploding lamp burned the modest establishment. That incident drew from Dr. Osler this characteristic telegram:

> Dear Trudeau: I am sorry to hear of your misfortune, but, take my word for it, there is nothing like a fire to make a man do a phœnix trick.

On Tuesday of last week, which was taken as the twenty-fifth anniversary of the building of the two-room shack on the hillside to celebrate Dr. Trudeau's career and the wonderful growth of the Sanitarium, surrounded by a group of friends, Dr. Trudeau saw in a series of tableaux the gradual unrolling of his career, rendered by men and women identified with his work, many of whom had gone to Saranac originally as invalids. He saw the sick young doctor go into the woods with the old guide, Fitz Halleck, who, thirty-two years ago, had shown him the trails. He saw the little shack built; then a larger house; and then more modern cottages; and finally a library, administration building, a chapel, a medical building, and an admirably equipped laboratory. Humor and high spirits have always lightened the sadness of the colony of invalids at Saranac Lake and in the Sanitarium; and the story of the history of the evolution of the Sanitarium was interspersed with lively episodes in which the resident physicians, the nurses, the patients, and Dr. Trudeau himself were freely introduced and happily satirized. At the end Dr. Trudeau, who had been ill for some weeks, and recovered just in time to take part in the celebration, made a brief speech, recalling the fact that when he went into the wilderness it was as an exile, but that he had had faith and optimism, "an indifferent education," but "the best wife any man ever had." With deep feeling he expressed his appreciation of the nurses, doctors, and friends who had worked with him and contributed to the success of the enterprise. Many letters of congratulation were received from all parts of the country. The celebration was unique as an expression of a very rare and beautiful personality; its humor, its pathos, its tenderness, the atmosphere of sympathetic human service which enveloped it, all interpreted the man whose life has been one long consecration to his fellow-men.

THE CONSERVATION MOVEMENT IN CANADA

Thanks largely to the agitation in the United States, and more directly to the invitation given to Canada by President Roosevelt to send delegates to Washington to attend the North American Conference on the conservation of natural resources, there are signs of a great awakening in the Dominion with regard to this question. On receiving the report of the delegates the Canadian Government brought in a bill for the establishment of a permanent Commission of Conservation. This bill was carried through both houses without a division, and became a law last spring. The Commission is perhaps the most truly national in its composition of any body ever constituted in Canada. Its membership includes the Cabinet Minister of each province most definitely connected with the administration of natural resources; for instance, the Minister of Lands and Mines is one of the members from Ontario. The several universities of Canada are also represented. The President of the Commission, the Hon. Clifford Sifton, formerly Minister of the Interior, has announced his intention of retiring from party politics so that he may devote his time and energies chiefly to his new work. The Commission has neither executive nor administrative powers. Its functions are advisory and educational. Its members are making a study of the natural resources of Canada, and will endeavor, by means of the platform and the press, to disseminate information, to influence public opinion, and to prepare the way for wise legislation and improved administration. The first annual meeting of the Commission was held last month at Ottawa. Among other subjects taken up at this meeting were the taking of an account of the resources of the Dominion; forest fires; the wasteful methods prevalent in lumbering, mining, smelting, fishing, and agriculture; the possibilities for industrial development in water powers; and the reckless waste of human lives through preventable accidents, preventable diseases, and improper treatment of infants. A grant of $10,000 has been included in the Dominion estimates for the year, but it was decided to ask that this grant should be increased to

$50,000. That the proposed work is needed is unquestionable. The prosperity of recent years has attracted to the Dominion the attention of capitalists eager to acquire and monopolize for their own benefit whatever revenue-producing assets the country possesses. More fortunate than older countries, Canada still retains control of a vast portion of her national wealth, and it rests with her people of to-day to decide whether she shall waste her heritage like the prodigal or preserve it for the good of millions yet unborn.

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THE BRITISH PREMIER'S TASK The new British Parliament met on Tuesday of last week. The opening was purely formal. When the vaults beneath the Parliament chambers had been searched, in traditional memory of the frustrated Gunpowder Plot of Guy Fawkes, when a commission representing the King had in the House of Lords declared the new Parliament open, had summoned the Commons and sent them back to select a Speaker, and the members of the lower house had complied with this direction by re-electing Mr. James William Lowther, Parliament adjourned for a week. The interval serves for the swearing in of the members of the House of Commons, and the perfection by the Premier and his fellow-Ministers of their plan of campaign. It is unquestionably a difficult problem which confronts Mr. Asquith. His task is divided into three parts; so also is the majority upon which he must depend for its accomplishment. His success in dealing with the three measures to which he is committed will depend upon his ability in holding together the three elements of his coalition majority. And, on the other hand, his success in uniting those elements will largely depend upon the strategic skill which he displays in his proposals for the campaign upon those measures. The Liberal Government is committed to the Lloyd-George Budget, to the curtailment of the veto power of the House of Lords over measures upon which the majority in the House of Commons is immovably determined, and to a measure of Home Rule for Ireland. For the fulfillment of these pledges the Premier depends upon a coalition majority. The purely Liberal majority over the Conservatives consists of one vote; the strength of the Labor party is forty-one votes and of the Nationalist party seventy-one votes. A little group of Independent Nationalists with eleven votes oppose the main Irish party, led by Mr. John Redmond, in their alliance with the Liberals. For the passage of any measure the Premier must hold the allegiance of either the Laborites or the Nationalists, and if at any time the latter should, through some unexpected combination of events, join with the Conservatives, the Liberal Government would be thereby defeated. In fact, the House of Commons in the new Parliament is in the most unstable of equilibriums, and there are not wanting many on both sides of the party line who predict an early catastrophe for the Liberal Government and a new general election. Mr. Asquith has given no indication of the order in which he intends to take up his three appointed tasks. His utterances during the election make it clear that he considers the question of the relation of the House of Lords to the House of Commons the most important—indeed the crucial question without a satisfactory solution of which the Liberal party cannot consent to accept responsibility for the further "carrying on of the King's government." But the enactment of a Budget is of the most immediate necessity. The collection of taxes for the past year is still without warrant of law. Some of the taxes, it is true, are being paid under informal arrangements between the taxpayers and the revenue officers. But others are in suspension till a Finance Bill actually becomes law. To postpone consideration of a Budget until the vexed question of the House of Lords is settled would seem to verge upon the impossible. A Finance Bill must be passed, and at once. Without ample supplies the Government faces chaos, for money is the very life-blood of administration. This situation is complicated by the declaration of the new Chairman of the Labor party in Parliament, Mr. Barnes, that it will not be acceptable to his party if Mr. Asquith holds office without assurance from the King with regard to the veto question and deals with the veto after the Budget. In the third place, Home Rule is the only measure about which the Nationalists care "tuppence." Unless they are convinced that a determined effort will be made without delay to fulfill the Premier's pledge to them on this point, they will almost certainly withdraw their support, or even turn it into hostility. It is true they are also anxious to bridle the House of Lords, but only because they realize that it is the most serious obstacle to Home Rule. They may therefore consent to dealing with the privileges of the hereditary chamber first. But predicting the course of an Irish party is almost as precarious an undertaking as driving an Irish pig to market. Looked at all around, Mr. Asquith's position is an unenviable one. If he succeeds in leading his conglomerate army to even partial victory, he will have shown himself an able statesman.

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MR. ROOSEVELT IN THE SUDAN

On Thursday of last week Mr. Roosevelt and his party reached Gondokoro after an interesting and rather arduous ten days' journey through the uninhabited, wild, and rough country which stretches for a little over a hundred miles between Nimule, in the Uganda Province, to the Upper Nile. Gondokoro, in the Bar-el-Jebel branch of the river, is a Sudanese village, and from it in the old days, before the downfall of the Mahdi, slaves and ivory used to be sent down the river to Khartum. Here the party found waiting for them the launch of General Sir Reginald Wingate, Sirdar of the Egyptian army, and from the vessel was flying in their honor the Stars and Stripes. About a week will be spent in this vicinity. A picturesque account of the arrival of the expedition may be quoted from the press despatches:

> Nothing that British and native hospitality could suggest was lacking in the welcome. The arrival of the expedition in the outskirts of the town was heralded with bugle blasts by Chief Keriba's bugle band, which led the van. Chief Keriba accompanied his musicians. The native party had met the expedition sixteen miles to the south, and on the route to this place did it all the honor that could be got out of their instruments of brass and Indian drums. On reaching the town the band struck up the music of "America," which is also that of the British national anthem, and suited the occasion exactly. Belgian marches were interspersed. Following the musicians, a native porter carried a large American flag. Then came the caravan proper, with Colonel Roosevelt, Kermit, the other American hunters and scientists, and the body of native porters, who have had an important if humble share in the work of the expedition.

The scientific results of the expedition, as has lately been announced from Washington, have been most gratifying, and the zoölogical and other specimens, several thousand in number, many of them distinctly rare, and ranging from the elephant to almost minute forms of life, will undoubtedly make a substantial and important addition to the United States National Museum under the control of the Smithsonian Institution. Mr. Roosevelt's next important stopping-point will be Khartum, where he is expected early in March; the journey from Khartum to Cairo will begin about the middle of March. Great interest is shown by the cable despatches to exist in Europe as to Mr. Roosevelt's reception and movements, and the number of invitations sent and plans suggested is so great as to make it altogether impossible for him to participate in more than a small proportion. While exact dates are not in all cases fixed, it is expected that the address at the Sorbonne will be delivered on April 16, the address before the University of Berlin on April 28, and the Romanes lecture at Oxford on May 18, while on May 2 at Christiania in Norway Mr. Roosevelt will address the Nobel Peace Prize Committee, which has been warmly and specially desirous to hear him because of the fact that three years ago he was the recipient of this recognition of service in the cause of international arbitration. It is increasingly evident that in his visit to Europe Mr. Roosevelt is anxious to avoid, so far as may be, public ceremony and spectacular ovations and to lay emphasis rather on his invitations to appear before the three great universities as an American writer and speaker. It is evident that both officially and personally the political heads and leaders of governments in the countries to be visited are eager to honor the ex-President of the United States, but that the character of the public reception offered to him will be limited, as far as possible, by his own ideas as to what is in good taste for a private American citizen.

NOT APRIL 30 BUT DECEMBER 1

Last month Mr. Henry, a Representative from Texas, thus embroidered the "Congressional Record:"

> As the world mingles with us while we install our Chief Executive, let it be under congenial auspices. Let it be when earth's icy mantle has been wooed by golden sunshine into a carpet of verdure rivaling the kaleidoscopic grandeur of old ocean's emerald, when myriad millions of scurrying snowflakes round yonder dome have been transmuted into seas of April blossoms everywhere 'neath Nature's elements in peaceful accord. Here in this capital, robed in the splendor of springtide and with a beauty unrivaled in all the world, when God has summoned his favorite season to smile and speak welcome, we will induct into his exalted station the loftiest official in the greatest Republic within the tide of time.

For what purpose is a President of the United States inaugurated? Is it to undertake the serious work of administering the government of ninety millions of people? Is it to carry out great governmental policies? Is it to put in force, with efficiency and promptness, the people's will? Not at all, if one is to judge from the rhetoric of Mr. Henry, the votes of certain Congressmen, and the utterances of certain newspapers. No, it is to afford the residents of Washington and the visitors to that city a chance to hear brass bands, to see a procession, and to dance in the Pension Building. Therefore let us throw to the winds all considerations of public policy; let us exhibit the utmost indifference to any question concerning prompt obedience to the people's will, and let us postpone the inauguration of the President from four months after election to nearly six months after election. Let us keep the President-elect from the work to which the people have called him until there is pleasanter weather for putting him on exhibition. Did ever grown men propose anything more preposterous? Yet year after year this proposition is seriously offered in the form of a Constitutional Amendment. Such an amendment is now before Congress, and has actually been favorably reported by a committee.

Those members of Congress who have lent themselves to this plan defend themselves on the ground that they are concerned for the health of sightseers. It is needless to add that they profess to be utterly indifferent to the desires of hotel-keepers and others who would reap a bigger harvest of dollars by a postponement of the show. The daily newspapers of Washington, however, are not indifferent to the commercial prosperity of the city, and the daily newspapers of Washington are read by Congressmen. Whether, however, the motives be humanitarian or commercial, the proposal is that because some sightseers have not intelligence enough to avoid unnecessary exposure, and because some thrifty business men want to make money, the country should be forced to wait six months, possibly at a critical time, before it can see even a first attempt made at carrying out its will.

At present the interval between the election of a President and his inauguration is too long. In England the people cast their ballots last month, and the party they put into power is already at work carrying out their mandate. In the United States the people vote in November, and it is the fourth of March before the party they put into power has the chance to begin its task. This interval between command and obedience is more than an anomaly in a democratic government: it is a recurrent period of paralysis, and at any time may become a peril to the Nation. The country has had a recent lesson in its effect on legislation. Between the time that Mr. Taft was elected and the time that he took office there was a halt in legislation when there should have been action. During that period Congress showed an indifference not only to the President but also to public opinion which ought to have been impossible in the legislative representatives of any self-governing people. If Mr. Taft had come into office on January 1, with a new Congress, the tariff legislation would not have hung fire until nearly ten months after the people had expressed their demand for a new tariff, and the ridiculous row over the secret service matter would not have disgraced Congress. This interval is therefore deplorable enough even when the election brings about no change in party.

When there is a change in party, this interval is positively dangerous. Once it made civil war inevitable. Those long weeks that dragged on between the election of Lincoln and his inauguration as President were the weeks during which the enemies of the Union took advantage of a fettered Nation. If Lincoln had become President as promptly after election as an English Prime Minister forms his Cabinet, the country might conceivably have avoided civil war and most certainly would have been in a position so to prepare for war as to escape its prolongation.

In the face of these facts, is it not childish to plan for extending that interval by nearly two months more, for intensifying the anomaly, for making heavier the fetters on self-government, for increasing the peril to the foundations of orderly society, simply because some people want a balmy day in which to watch a ceremony outdoors?

By all means let Inauguration Day be changed; but let it be put back from the 4th of March to the 1st of December.

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POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS

In your editorial comment on the discussion of Postal Savings Banks by Mr. John Harsen Rhoades, in The Outlook of January 29, you do not give attention to one of the dangers that he points out—that of the withdrawal of funds from the localities where they are needed for the development of the resources of the country. The small National bank is a great factor in the business life of every community in the country. In these banks the people deposit their surplus cash, and here the short-time borrower can get a loan to help him over a period of shortage in his cash account. Many lines of country business depend on this borrowing and could scarcely get along without it. Many a farmer wants to buy feed on credit, and the feed merchants could not carry the accounts were it not for the local bank. The postal savings bank would certainly draw the money away from these banks, and there would consequently be a lack of money to loan for the needs of local commerce. The city banks and trust companies would get more funds and the rural districts would be drained. It is said that the English system has produced this effect in Ireland.

Margaretville, New York. L. R. LONG.

Our correspondent seems to have misunderstood Mr. Rhoades. Mr. Rhoades did not say or mean that the postal savings banks would draw depositors away from the National banks and thus reduce the funds at the disposal of the latter for loan and discount; but that if, as proposed in the Carter bill, the postal deposits are placed in the local National banks by the Government and two and a half per cent is charged the bank by the Government for the use of the money, it would flow at once to the great centers, where the highest rates of interest could be obtained. There is perhaps some danger of this, but it is no greater danger than now applies to all deposits in all country National banks. The local National banks have simply to keep a certain amount of cash reserve on hand. They would have to keep the same proportionate amount for the Government deposit; it is possible even that by legislation an increased reserve might be required for these Government deposits.

Our correspondent appears to fear that in country districts National bank depositors would transfer their account to postal savings banks. We do not think that this would happen to any appreciable extent. A man who opens a National bank account opens it for checking and not for saving purposes. On the contrary, we believe that, so far as the postal savings bank plan should have any effect on banking, it would increase the deposits in the local National banks available for loan and discount by bringing out from stockings, bureau drawers, boxes, and other places of supposed safety very considerable sums of cash which in the rural districts, under present conditions, never find their way into any bank whatsoever for current uses.

It is true that the bankers of the country are carrying on an organized propaganda against postal savings bank legislation, which is having, naturally, considerable effect upon Members of Congress. Unless the public at large brings some influence to bear upon Congressmen in favor of the postal savings bank plan, it is in great danger of being defeated. We venture the prophecy that, if postal savings banks are established in the United States, ten years after they have been in operation American bankers will be their strongest defenders, so sure are we that a properly administered postal savings bank is a natural contributor to both banks of savings and banks of loan and discount.

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A DANGER SIGNAL

It is not always true that where ignorance is bliss 'tis folly to be wise. Sometimes the bliss of ignorance is followed by an awakening, too late, to tragedy and tears. The prudent man foreseeth the evil, the simple pass on and are punished. If the punishment fell only on ourselves, it would be easier to bear. If only the tears were ours and the tragedy ours! but, alas! often the penalty of our folly falls on those whom we should have protected, and their tears are bitterer and their tragedy more tragic.

"The War on the White Slave Trade," by Ernest A. Bell (C. C. Thompson Company, Chicago), is terrible reading. So is the Report from the Immigration Commission to the Senate on the same subject (Senate Document 196). But these are terrible facts of American life which these publications tell, and ignorance of them is no preservation of innocence. It is an invitation to disaster worse than death. Whether there is a personal devil in another sphere influencing us in this we do not undertake to say; but that there are devils living in America, male and female, is unquestioned fact. Influenced partly by lust, partly by greed of gain, partly by mere devilish delight in wickedness, these venomous human spiders spin their webs with more than the cunning and with more than the callousness to human suffering of Mephistopheles. Says Mr. Edwin A. Sims, United States District Attorney of Chicago: "There is really a trade in the ruin of girls as much as there is a trade in cattle or sheep or other products of the farm." And again: "The recent examination of more than two hundred 'white slaves' by the officers of the United States District Attorney at Chicago has brought to light the fact that literally thousands of innocent girls from the country districts are every year entrapped into a life of hopeless degradation and slavery, because parents in the country do not understand conditions as they exist, and how to protect their daughters from the 'white slave' traders who have reduced the art of ruining young girls to a national and international system." And again: "The evidence obtained from questioning some two hundred and fifty girls taken in Federal raids on Chicago houses of ill repute leads me to believe that not fewer than fifteen thousand girls have been imported into this country in the last year as white slaves." He adds that this is, of course, only a guess, but he believes it is a conservative guess. And this guess is confirmed by the judgment of the Immigration Commission, who say in their report to Congress: "In the judgment of practically any one who has had an opportunity for careful judgment, the numbers imported run well into the thousands each year."

But the importation is not only nor chiefly from abroad; it is from the country to the city; and from every part of the country into every city of considerable size. And every variety of art is practiced to capture these slaves. Sometimes the young girl traveling alone to the city is accosted by a specious-looking man, who falls into conversation with her and offers to take her to a quiet, respectable boarding-house. Sometimes the hackman whom unsuspectingly she employs at the station delivers her at the prison house. Sometimes the traveling man of this infamous traffic, looking for victims, makes her acquaintance in her village home, offers her a promise of employment, and, with the consent of her unsuspecting parents, convoys her to the city, and to what is worse than death. Sometimes, if she be an especially attractive girl, he courts her, wins her hand, and actually marries her, only to desert her. Nor are men only engaged in this traffic. Women are sharers in this crime and in its profits.

And when the girl is once ensnared escape is all but impossible. She is literally imprisoned. Friendless, alone, often ignorant of the city or of the location of the house, she has no means of escape. Deprived of clothes, she could not make her way in the street even if she could make her way to it. The letters she writes, if she attempts to write, are never mailed. And in her prison house violence often compels submission when artifice and blandishment and deceit fail. This is not mere prostitution which confronts us: it is enforced prostitution. The term "white slave" is not a rhetorical figure; it states a tragic fact. As the degradation is worse than death, so these slave-dealers are worse than murderers.

Law may do something to punish the criminal, to prevent the crime, and to protect the victim. Christian philanthropy can do something, and is doing something. But the radical remedy is in the home. Every mother should teach her daughter the mystery of life. Ignorance is a poor protection of innocence. No parent should intrust his daughter to the guardianship of any chance acquaintance, man or woman, however engaging, nor to any one whom he does not know personally so well and trust so thoroughly that he would confide to him his fortune and his life. And no girl should be left to find her way from her country home to employment in any of our cities unprotected by such a guardian.

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LENTEN MEDITATIONS

THE LIVING GOD

There are many kinds of literature in the sixty-six books of the Bible, but one great thought runs through them all: the thought of God as an immediate Presence, a living Person. Almost every writer is steeped in what has been called the God-consciousness. By him all things were made, and in him all things have their being. The wings of the morning cannot bear the thought beyond the boundaries of his presence, nor the depths of the sea hide from his sight. The world lies always in his vision, and without him no living thing survives. This deep and unbroken conviction that the world lies, moment by moment, in God's presence and fulfills its mighty life by his power created a conception of history which made the Bible not only a record of unique character, but a book of dynamic and living energy. Out of it flows the renewing and inspiring force that consoled the Jew in the years of his manifold sorrows and gave him a faith as much higher than the faiths of his contemporaries as the immortal spirit is higher than the perishing body in which it is lodged. In the light of the consciousness of God, supreme over the government of the world, life was revealed as a tremendous spiritual drama enacted in the presence of the Infinite.

It is the misfortune of the Christian world that its reverence for this revelation of God at work among men brought with it the feeling that the revelation closed with the vision of the Apocalypse, and that when the last chapter of the New Testament was written a new dispensation began, miracles were at an end, and the world somehow passed out of his immediate presence. For many he ceased to be a living God and became a historic God. There is no hint of such a teaching in the words of Christ, no suggestion in the Bible that it is other than the history of a few centuries, to be followed by other histories of other centuries as much under his guidance and as immediately in his keeping as were the days of the patriarchs and of the Apostles. Judea is no more a Holy Land than is America, and God was no nearer Abraham than Washington or Lincoln. We have ceased to write history with the God-consciousness, but his absence from the pages of our later records does not mean that he is absent from the events they describe. Whenever a man of prophetic vision has appeared, like Maurice or Bushnell, the world lies as clear in his vision as it lay in Isaiah's time, and he moves through the troubled life of modern nations as he moved through the troubled life of Israel. In all our struggles to make a righteous and just society, in our blundering endeavor to bring peace among men, in our repentances and confessions, in our personal and national strivings to bring in his kingdom, he is present as truly as he was present when Israel was led by his hand through the wilderness into the promised land. And he is as near each one of us as he was to the greatest of his children in the days when men saw his hand in all the events of life. In our time as really as in theirs he moves upon the spirits of men, and his pillar of fire and cloud guide them as certainly as they led his ancient people. The kingdom of God lies before, not behind us.

THE SPECTATOR

The Spectator, the other day, was in the home of a woman who is a member, in her by no means small city, of what a humorous fellow-member calls the "Charity Trust Limited.". She is secretary of one charitable organization, treasurer of another, and one of a group of almost professional charity directors who meet each other at one board after another, from hospital to free playground associations. On her library table, in challenging sight, lay a little periodical devoted entirely to the art of advertising, and she met the Spectator's speculating eye and laughed.

"Yes, I take it, and read it regularly. It is a part of the equipment for charitable work nowadays to know how to advertise brilliantly and effectively."

"Let not your right hand know what your left hand doeth," suggested the Spectator, slyly.

"Oh, the advertising isn't *that* kind. Of course every charity publishes reports and lists of givers, but that isn't the advertising I mean. I suppose it used to be. A yearly report, besides giving its subscription list, does bring before the public what a charity is doing. But then it is only mailed to subscribers, and most of them never read it any more. They haven't time. A man who subscribes to every charity in town cannot read reports all day. Really, the only time the average subscriber knows how his gifts have been applied is when he reads in the newspapers what this or that charity is doing. So newspaper advertising is getting to be a very necessary part of charity management; and the charity that never is in the newspapers stands a good chance of being forgotten by those who have money to give—or to bequeath, which is almost as important. A wise board of directors always keeps things on hand to announce in the papers with as strong a news flavor as possible. Excuse me for just a moment, please—there's the telephone."

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She returned, smiling.

"The 'Daily Eagle' wants to know if the Hospital Tag Day has been positively fixed for Washington's Birthday. The reporter says that the Free Kindergartens are also considering that date for their house-to-house collection, but will, of course, choose some other day if we have selected that. I'm *so* glad we've got safely in ahead!"

"House-to-house?" repeated the Spectator, puzzled. "Tag Day I know, with all its wild activities; but what is this house-to-house business?"

"It's newer than Tag Day," explained the expert. "That is a great point in charity advertising—to be novel. The reporters will give twice as much space to a novelty. Reading, Pennsylvania, started the house collection idea. They called it 'Block Day,' and did it in the evening. One week ahead of the day fixed, envelopes were sent to every house, and the householders were notified that they would be called for the next week. Seven hundred collectors, each with a bag large enough to hold many envelopes, started on their rounds, by blocks and districts, on signal. The signal was a splendid advertising idea—every church and fire bell rang and every whistle blew for three minutes, beginning at 8 P.M. sharp."

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The Spectator shuddered as he thought of the noise, but listened, fascinated, for further details, nevertheless.

"The collectors rang every door-bell and asked for the envelope. Every one, almost, had it ready. The bags were filled, and then the collectors all reported at the City Hall, where the envelopes were opened and the money counted. Over ten thousand dollars was taken in. The beauty of a scheme like that, though, is that every family in town has the fact brought home to them literally that there is a charity asking their special help at their own door. There is always a crop of gifts coming in afterwards, too, sometimes during a whole year, from such thorough advertising. But oh, it is hard work! After our last Tag Day, what with the fifteen hundred collectors and their flaring badges and boxes, and the chaperons, who got cross and confused and worried, and the crowds in the office buildings, and the hurried counting at the bank, hour after hour—why, I went out on the street afterward, and looked at the

Salvation Army lassie on the corner, with her tambourine and 'War Cry,' and felt I could not sufficiently admire the quiet dignity of her methods!"

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The Spectator has since taken notice of all the various charity advertising specialties that have come his way, and he is more and more convinced that the sociological workers of to-day, wide awake in everything, are certainly widest awake of all as to publicity. The Chicago Young Men's Christian Association, for example, a while ago secured the president of a great advertising agency in Chicago—who is also, by the way, a poet and essayist of no mean reputation—to write for them twelve signed "talks" published as advertisements in the papers. The result was such a return wave of men and money to the Young Men's Christian Association that Boston used the same "talks" and raised half a million dollars by them. Up to date these advertisements have been reprinted and used by one hundred and eighty other Young Men's Christian Associations over the country; and the same advertisement man is now credited with being at the bottom of the "Big Brother" movement, with its wide appeal in the press.

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The charity advertising in smaller cities is local. But many of the New York organizations, for instance, advertise themselves from Maine to Texas. One Boys' Club circular, accompanied by subscription book, return envelope, etc., journeys out over the whole country every year, and gains enough by it to keep up the advertisement steadily each January. So does a hospital for children in New York, which draws from pocketbooks all over the Nation. These advertisements are all of the highest expert quality, and have "follow-up" letters to complete the force of their plea and remind the forgetful; and the result is, as the Spectator's informant rather plaintively remarked: "My own brother sent a check to New York, and asked me why we didn't have just such a charity here. We've had one for three years, but he had never heard of it! Oh, it pays to advertise!" The Red Cross Christmas Stamp is a shining example of the power of advertising science. All the posters, placards, envelopes, and distributing schemes of its original campaign were planned by the advertising experts of a large company in Wilmington, Delaware, where it started. Prepared material with a special signed letter was sent from the Washington headquarters to three thousand selected newspapers, representing the press leaders in every State and Territory, and a similar campaign took in the large stores in important towns. Each agent received a pamphlet full of advertising suggestions. And the result has been one that many other charities have envied. The fight against tuberculosis, indeed, of which the Christmas Stamp forms but a part, has brought out better and wider advertising than any other form of modern philanthropy. The house-to-house scheme in Reading was for a tuberculosis hospital, and a "Blue Star" day in Detroit (on which the citizens were asked to pay a nickel for the blue star badge which represented hope for the consumptives of the city) brought in thirteen thousand dollars and over for the cause.

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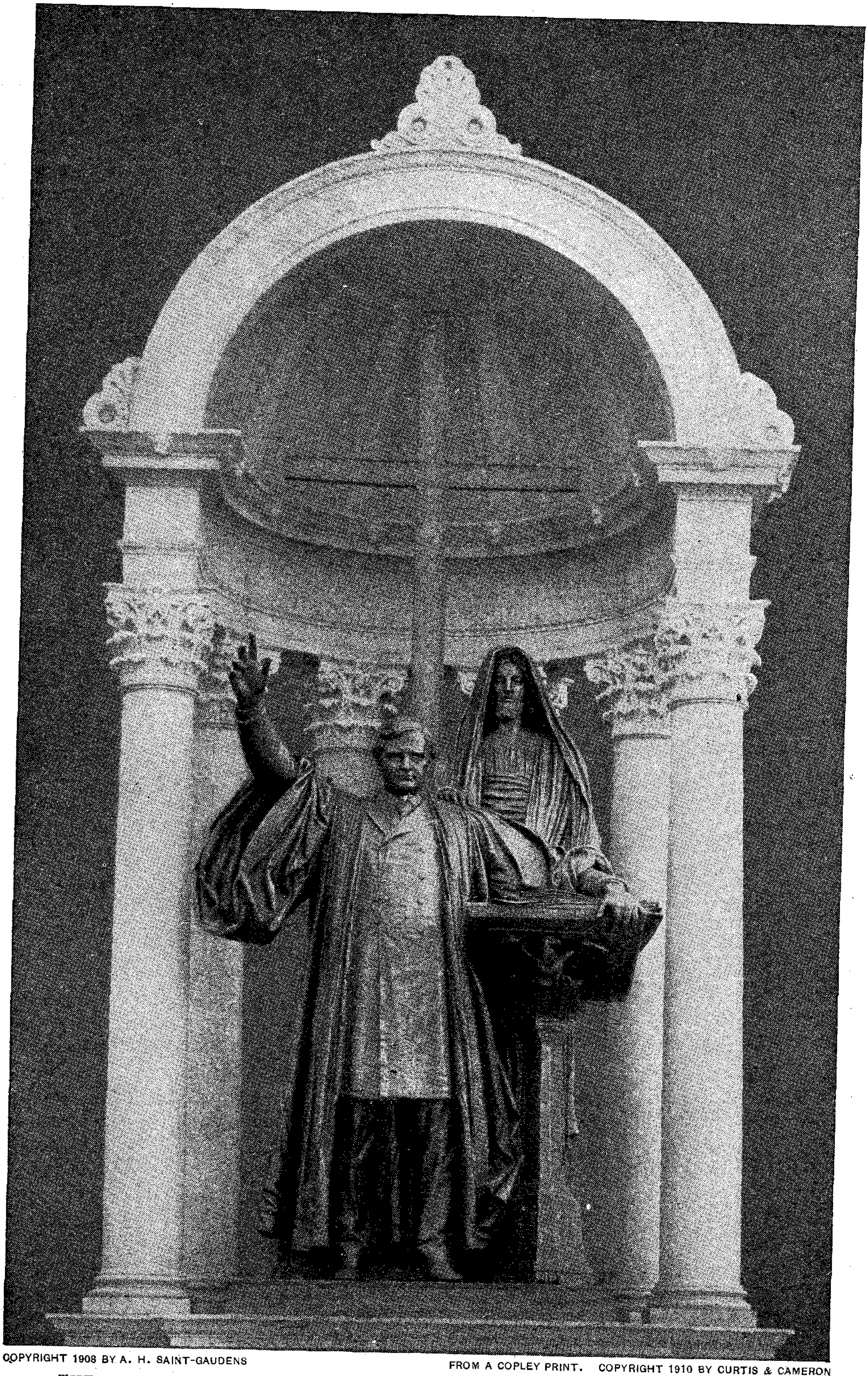
The Spectator confesses that the tuberculosis traveling car exhibit beats all the rest of charity advertising hollow, to his mind. This is an advertising novelty tried first in California, and now running in Delaware and New Hampshire also. It is on the model of the educational "corn train," but appeals to every man, woman, and child instead of only to farmers. The car which the Spectator is acquainted with is painted all in white, glitteringly clean, with the tuberculosis cross in bright red on the side. Within, the seats have been removed and a variety of models, electrical "illusions," charts, maps, pictures, window-tents, out-of-door beds, etc., are arranged in such a way that no one can enter and pass through without getting a liberal education in anti-tuberculosis methods. Literature by the pound, in "dodgers," leaflets, and colored post-cards, is scattered temptingly for the taking, and campaign buttons, with the tuberculosis cross and "Protection—Prevention" in red letters on their shining white disks, are ready by the thousand for the public.



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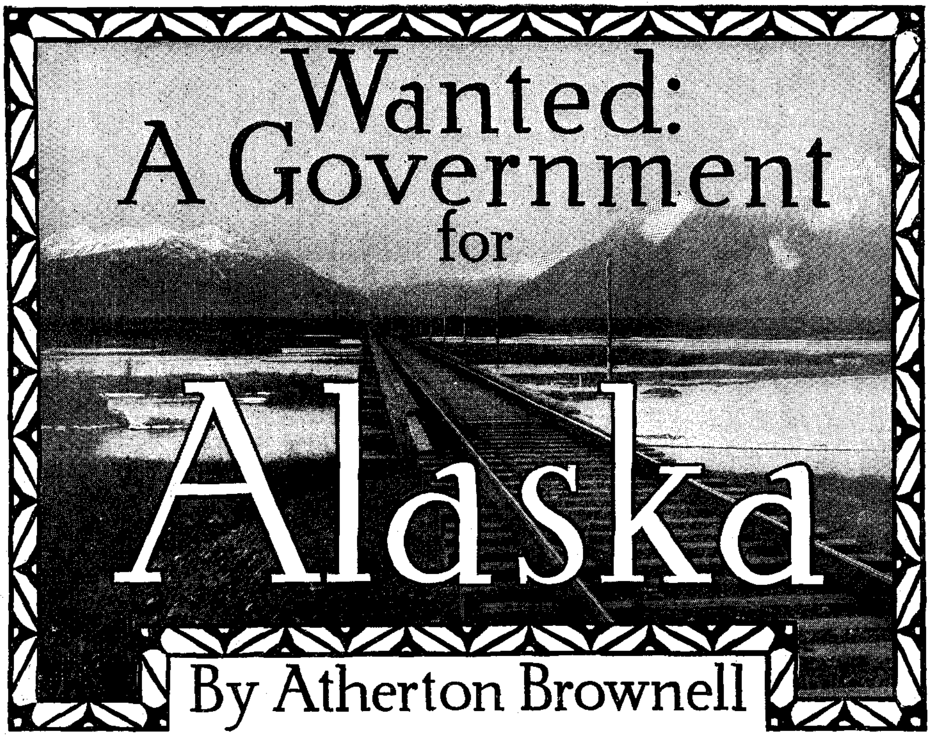
THE MEMORIAL OF PHILLIPS BROOKS DESIGNED BY AUGUSTUS SAINT-GAUDENS AND PRESENTED TO TRINITY CHURCH BY THE CITIZENS OF BOSTON



Wanted: A Government for Alaska

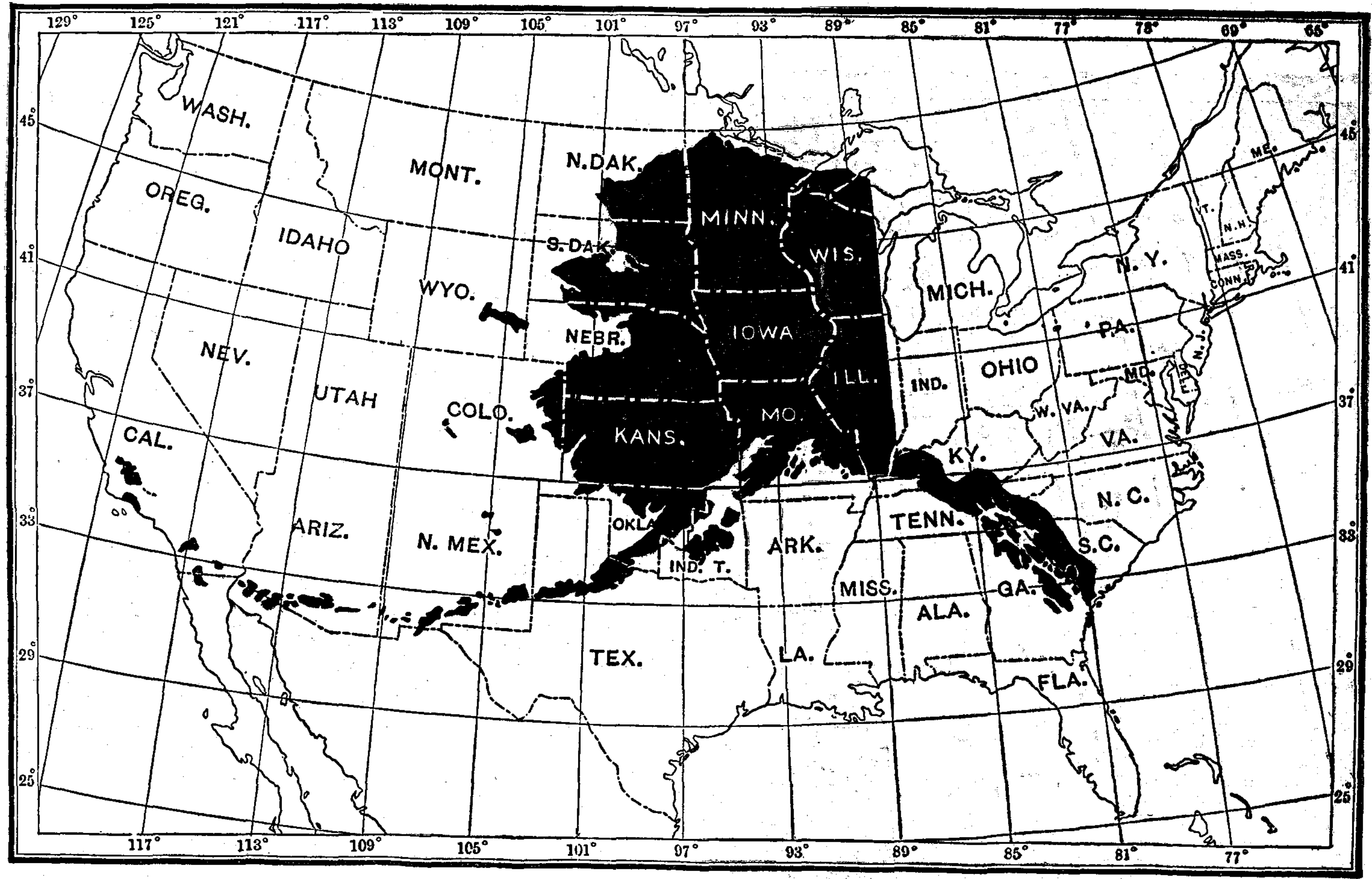
By Atherton Brownell

IT has long been foreshadowed that at the present session of Congress a demand would be made by the people of Alaska for legislation that would give to them the same measure of self-government that is accorded to our Territories. It became known from President Taft's Seattle speech in September last that such a proposition would not receive Executive approval, and later, in his Message to Congress, the President indicated his attitude in no equivocal words.

He urges legislation to provide for the appointment by the President of a Governor and also of an Executive Council for Alaska, the members of which shall, during their term of office, reside in the Territory, and which shall have legislative powers sufficient to enable it to give to the Territory local laws adapted to its present growth. "I strongly deprecate legislation," he says, "looking to the election of a Territorial Legislature in that vast district. The lack of permanence of residence of a large part of the present population, and the small number of people who either permanently or temporarily reside in the district as compared with its vast expanse and the variety of the interests that have to be subserved, make it altogether unfitting, in my judgment, to provide for a popular election of a legislative body. The present system is not adequate and does not furnish the character of local control that ought to be there. The only compromise, it seems to me, which may give needed local legislation and secure a conservative government is the one I propose."

It is hardly a matter of surprise that President Taft should suggest as the basis of a civil government in an undeveloped territory a form so nearly similar to that established by himself in the Philippine Islands, and this similarity may not inconceivably lead to considerable discussion.

One point that may be brought to the front is that in our somewhat hectic acquirement of non-contiguous territory we have set up almost as many forms of government as we have lands to govern. Alaska at present has no adequate and complete form of government, its affairs being administered by a Governor appointed from Washington. It has an executive and a judiciary, but no legislative branch of government. Porto Rico, the Panama Canal Zone, and Guam are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ALASKA (IN BLACK) COMPARED WITH THE AREA OF THE UNITED STATES

The principal cities of Alaska that compare in population with the various American cities are as follows: Ketchikan with Savannah; Skagway with Evansville, Indiana; Cordova with St. Louis; Fairbanks with Des Moines: Nome with Deadwood, South Dakota; Cape Romanoff with Denver each governed solely by a Governor appointed from Washington. Hawaii has a full Territorial form of government, while the Philippines are governed by a resident Commission which exercises all of the executive functions as well as those legislative functions that belong to the upper house in a State form of government. It is this latter form that President Taft has suggested as best meeting the present needs of Alaska, and to which opposition has already developed, largely on the ground that a form of government designed for and suited to an incompetent people of Asiatic origin unused to our forms would not be satisfactory for people of our own kind and from our own stock.

This radical difference between the two countries, Alaska and the Philippines, is admittedly true. It is, however, superficial, since there are fundamental elements of similarity that appeal to one so experienced in the work of constructive government building as President Taft. In both cases we have a vast territory of untold richness almost wholly lacking in development, but capable, under a wise and broad policy of exploitation, of becoming of immense value, not only as an asset to this country, but to its own people. The cases differ in that in the Philippines we have a great native population who are looked upon as wards of the Government, and for whose future generations their lands are to be conserved and developed, while the American population is hardly to be considered. In Alaska we have a land that is equally rich, but lying nearer our own borders, and in which the native population is a negligible quantity. It demands conservation and development, not for future generations of natives, but for the incoming population of American farmers, miners, and industrial settlers, the vanguard of which is already upon the ground.

President Taft's chief point in favor of a commission as opposed to a Territorial form of government at the present moment is that this present population is too sparse and its interests too widely diversified over an immense stretch of territory to make any general development plan undertaken by the people themselves adequate to the broadest consideration of policies affecting the development of the Territory as a whole and in the best interests of that population which is already packing its boxes preparatory to moving in. This is another condition that to a degree parallels the situation in the Philippines, where the industrial, political, social, and religious interests of the various parts of the archipelago are—while not necessarily foreign—unknown to each other.

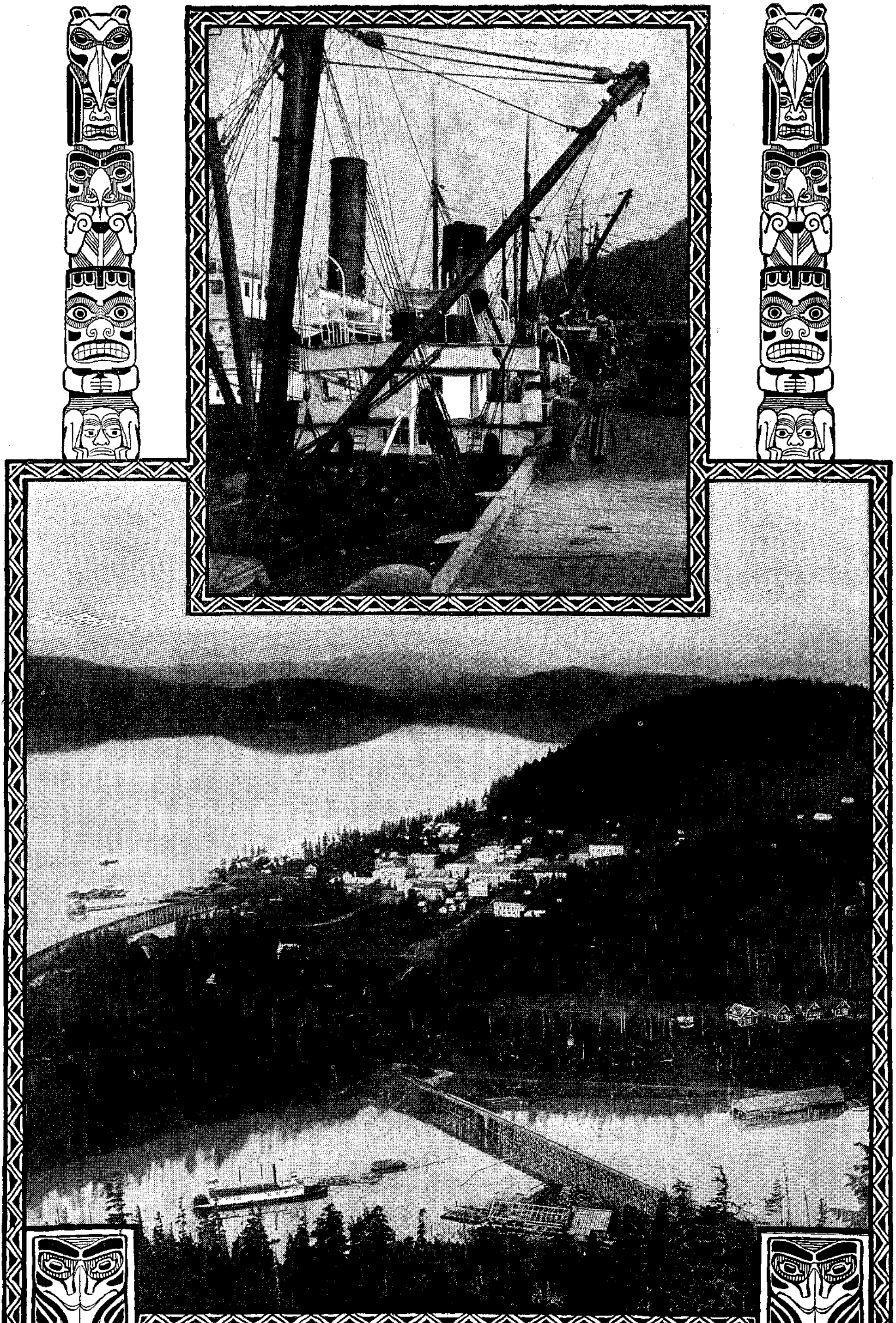
To get a clear and fair idea of the Alaskan situation it is only necessary to superimpose the map of that Territory upon the map of the United States. If Mount St. Elias, the southernmost point of the direct boundary line running north to the Arctic, be placed over Cairo, Illinois, the northeastern point of Alaska will be found to coincide with Marquette, Michigan; Point Barrow will coincide with the northern boundary of Michigan; Cape Romanoff, which is the extreme western point of the Alaskan mainland, will be over Denver, Colorado. This has to do only with the central portion of Alaska, for, under other circumstances, southeastern Alaska will be found to stretch across Kentucky, Tennessee, and Georgia to Savannah, while the western sweep of the Aleutian Islands extends through Oklahoma and Texas, touching El Paso, and to Santa Barbara on the Pacific Coast. Within the sweep of territory in the United States are over a score of cities of more than fifty thousand population, each closely connected with the others by ties of steel and mutual interest, while between them lie thickly populated areas binding the whole into one homogeneous mass. Had a proposition ever been made to put this territory under a single Territorial or State form of government, it would have been considered more futile than our original attempt to keep the great Northwest Territory, in its primitive days, under a single form of government.

In Alaska, therefore, we have a territory which, roughly speaking, covers an area equivalent to that comprised in the States from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains and from the junction of the Missouri and the Mississippi to our northern boundary, and in which we have a population of less than forty thousand people located in a dozen small cities, ranging from twelve hundred to five thousand, and separated from one another by days of weary travel, with differing and sometimes conflicting interests, thereby forbidding a common opinion and common action on the issues that are certain to arise. There is no overlapping of interests from one community to the next, nor even a point at which they come in contact. Each came into being for some special local need of development, and between them lie great wastes of country awaiting the coming of the settler who will develop them, and by that development bind the whole together into one homogeneous mass, the material for half a dozen States.

Southern Alaska has its fisheries and its forests, with deep-water facilities for shipping and mail service the year around, together with its considerable quartz mining interests. Here, on the southern coast, are also the immense coal deposits awaiting development, and also the rich copper deposits of the Kotsina-Chitina region, which have forced the beginning of railway construction. Deep in the interior, in the Tanana Valley, the center of which is Fairbanks, and which seems destined to be the most permanently prosperous section of Alaska, lies a great agricultural region, which must, however, for many years be practically inaccessible during the winter, while in the short summer the farmer's attention will be confined to his crops. At sub-arctic Nome and in the valleys of the north lie great placer mines. Under these circumstances, for the representatives of one section to legislate for the interests of others would be almost as difficult—even though they could physically get together—as for the Mohammedan Moro of Zamboanga to find a common thought or tongue with the Christian Tagalog of Manila in the Philippine Islands. Even to select a Territorial capital, where a legislature could hold its sessions, would be a perplexity. The travel routes of Nome, Cordova, and Skagway, for instance, are entirely different, and it is nearly three thousand miles by any natural route from Nome to Ketchikan. As a matter of fact, if one were to choose the most accessible capital for Alaska as it is to-day, Seattle, which is not in Alaska at all, would be the most feasible, since it is the one place where all Alaskans can most easily meet. Geographically because it is the center, and logically because of its size and importance, Fairbanks would have the strongest claim, but the difficulty of access as a common point from most of the other cities would cause a grave perplexity.

In spite of all these difficulties of the present, Alaskans already resent the suggestion of a resident commission as the governing power, partly because of the comparison with the semi-civilized Philippines, but more largely, perhaps, because the Territory has already suffered much through an incompetent form of "carpet-bag" government. If, therefore, the Philippine Commission is cited as an example, it is because that body more nearly approaches the model for a commission form of government than any we have yet developed. Composed of men having no local or sectional interests who have become residents of the country, and supplemented by some who are natives, it has proved that, under the circumstances causing its creation, it has been able to pursue a broader policy of development, more exactly suited to the needs of the country as a whole, and more in harmony with Washington and National legislation, than any native legislature could possibly have accomplished. Not being by birth or personal interest too close to sectional details and prejudices, it has been able to maintain a perspective view of the needs of the country as a whole, and, while it is in a formative state, so to broaden the policy as to comprehend the greatest good for all. It has made mistakes and profited by them, and much of the experimental work in the development of practically new territory would have a direct bearing in the development of the wonderful resources of Alaska.

The Philippine Commission is composed of seven members, five of whom are Americans selected by the President and two of whom are natives similarly appointed. These seven were originally the lawmaking as well as the executive branches of government, and under them the judiciary was selected. As a whole, the Commission acted as the legislative



CORDOVA, THE YEAR-OLD METROPOLIS OF THE SOUTH ALASKA COAST, AND THE FUTURE OUTLET OF THE COPPER AND BERING RIVER COAL-FIELDS branch, and each member then became the head of one of the several executive departments. The native members were looked to for close advice and direction as to local and native conditions and needs, while the entire Commission, with its general view of the conditions and its great flexibility, established the various branches of public work modeled upon our own, but adapted to local conditions. Thus it installed all the machinery of government as experts and not as amateurs, and, as time has gone on, the native population has now been given the General Assembly, or lower house, in the legislative branch, with the power of initiative, while the Commission still remains as the upper house and executive branch.

Alaskan conditions suggest a slight variation in the matter of construction of the Commission. If seven be considered the best number to provide the Commission with the varied expert knowledge and still keep the body within the limits of flexibility, three of these might properly be Alaskans, each to be chosen from a different district, since there are three general divisions of the Territory whose interests and needs differ widely. Furthermore, since the present population is of a character so different from that of the people of the Philippines and fully capable of exercising the power of the franchise, there seems to be no reason why in the case of Alaska these native commissioners should not be chosen by the people at a popular election. The other four might properly be by Executive appointment and become residents of Alaska. The work to be done by the Commission would, to a large extent, influence the appointment of men with the special training, knowledge, and experience to fit them to meet the conditions that are to be confronted. Such a Commission would give local self-government, far removed from the criticism of Washington control and without the suggestion of carpetbaggery that is abhorrent to Alaskans. To this might be added a Territorial Delegate in Congress with power to vote.

The immediate future of Alaska is in the development of its agricultural and mineral resources; its ultimate destiny is as a commercial territory; and as between the two periods, though linked with both, is the necessary development of transportation facilities. The demand of Alaska for government is therefore that it be primarily of a business nature. In the Philippines the Commission had to meet such a question in the very beginning. Without adequate transportation from the interior of the several islands to their seacoasts, and also inter-insular transportation by water, there could be no development of the resources. Yet such transportation could not be profitable until development had reached a commercial stage. Only a closely knit Commission of sane men, well versed in the well-established principles of economics, could have met a question of such a nature and, in the absence of private capital willing to undertake the task, make it a part of the work of government.

In Alaska a similar question presents itself. The Territory cannot develop without adequate transportation to and from it. Its interior cannot develop without adequate transportation to the seacoast, and the difficulties of railway building here are, for many reasons, sufficient to give pause to the hardiest government. Because of the rich mining development, present and prospective, private capital is here undertaking the task, which is the reverse of the condition that exists in the Philippines and one that calls for careful consideration. This and a kindred question demand the broadest and most conservative handling. There is a local feeling that Alaska may be given over to "the corporations." As between giving to corporate interests a mortgage—a death pledge—upon the future of Alaska, and so throttling them that neither they nor the people by unorganized individual effort can develop these resources, there is a safe middle ground that must be occupied, and the question thus presented is again similar to that which confronted the Philippine Commission. The wealth of the Philippines attracted the greed of great aggregations of capital, which doubtless would exploit that wealth solely for their own desires and regardless of the future welfare of the people. Here the attempt was made to prevent the everlasting mortgaging of the future by the adoption of stringent and drastic land laws which effectually prevented their occupation by capitalists, but which, by the same token, have caused them to lie idle and undeveloped while the natives starved. This form of conservation for future generations presupposed the ability of the present generation to live on nothing long enough to bring the next into being. The actual operation of these laws has brought students of the Philippine Government, including President Taft, to the belief that real development means to take advantage of the benefits to be derived from corporate organization, while at the same time checking undue greed. The land laws of the Philippines are to be amended along this line of thought, and one of the problems that will confront an Alaskan Commission is along the same line.

This same problem is one that, in other phases, confronts the entire country in the matter of the proper limitations that shall be set to the carrying out of our conservation policy. There is a growing feeling that the true purposes of conservation are not being fulfilled by the absolute withdrawal of lands for entry and settlement in order to prevent their occupation by greedy capital; but that the real purpose of conservation is the proper use and economical development of our resources. Between conservation that means idleness and the waste that foreshadows want there is a policy the note of which is sounded in the annual report of Secretary of the Interior Ballinger where he suggests the classification and segregation of public lands according to their greatest apparent use. This is the salient point, perhaps, of the Administration's view of the public domain, namely, its use as opposed to its abuse and neglect.

Alaska furnishes one of the present examples of the latter in its coal-fields. Mr. Alfred H. Brooks, of the United States Geological Survey, is authority for the statement that the coal deposits on the southern coast of Alaska are greater in extent than the coal-fields of Pennsylvania. The Pacific coast is practically without coal otherwise. The United States Navy Department imports its coal largely from Wales for use in ships on the Pacific, and it pays therefor as high a price as $12 to $14 per ton. Lying untouched in Alaska are coal-fields which, if operated, could produce coal at perhaps $2 per ton, thereby supplying not only the manufacturing plants of the Pacific coast with their fuel, but also providing the navy with coal at one-sixth the cost, as well as creating a supply of our own upon which we could draw for National defense in case of need, instead of compelling us to go to foreign nations for a contraband of war which, even could it be obtained, would then have to be transported over great exposed distances in foreign bottoms.

Our navy in the Pacific burns approximately four hundred thousand tons of coal annually, most of which comes from Wales, although a small amount comes around Cape Horn from Pennsylvania. The cost runs from $7 to $14 per ton at the Mare Island Navy-Yard, whereas with the Alaskan coal-fields open and in operation, with adequate railway transportation, we would have our own supply independently of any other nation and at an annual Government saving of approximately $4,000,000 per annum. This saving in one year would be sufficient to equip the mines with the necessary machinery to produce two million tons per year. If the coal-fields of Alaska were to be held undeveloped for fifty years, as has been suggested, to provide for the future, the United States navy alone would have wasted $200,000,000.

As the coal land situation in Alaska is a matter of keen public interest at this time, a word on this subject may add to a clearer understanding. In 1900 the coal land law of the United States was extended to Alaska. That proved ineffectual because the laws permitted the entry of surveyed lands only, and there were no public surveys in Alaska. In 1904 a new law was passed permitting the location of unsurveyed coal lands by taking possession and marking boundaries. Under that act some thirty thousand acres of coal land were located in what is known as the Bering River coal-field, about ten thousand acres were located in what is known as the Matanuska coal-field, and perhaps two thousand acres located in the Fairbanks district, all in 160-acre sections or tracts. The language of the act provides that no entries shall be made except for the individual benefit of the locator, and not directly or indirectly for the benefit of any other person or company nor with the intention of later selling or combining with others for more economical working or obtaining capital for equipment. Under this ruling some thirty and odd entries were suspended in 1906 for fraud. Because of the belief that corporate interests were seeking the development of these lands all were withdrawn from entry.

Practically the only corporate interests in Alaska to-day on a large scale are those which exist under the so-called Morgan-Guggenheim syndicate. Its railway, the Copper River and Northwestern, is being driven from tidewater on Prince William Sound northward to tap the Bering River coal-fields, the Kotsina-Chitina copper region, and the gold-bearing and agricultural Tanana Valley in the interior plateau. This railway is the one assured enterprise of the kind under construction in Alaska, the supreme need of which territory is rail connection between tidewater and the mineral fields of the interior. It is being built at large expense without cost to the Government in either money or concessions of land, timber, or minerals. How great would have been the setback to the development of our own West if such conditions had been required of the first transcontinental lines may be imagined.

The one actual possession of the builders of this road, and that which gives them a practical reason for building it, is a single copper mine in the upper Chitina region. This is the somewhat celebrated Bonanza, certainly a remarkably valuable property, and—so far as exploration has gone—the richest of the dozen or more large prospects in an extensive and but little prospected area, which without the railway is almost inaccessible.

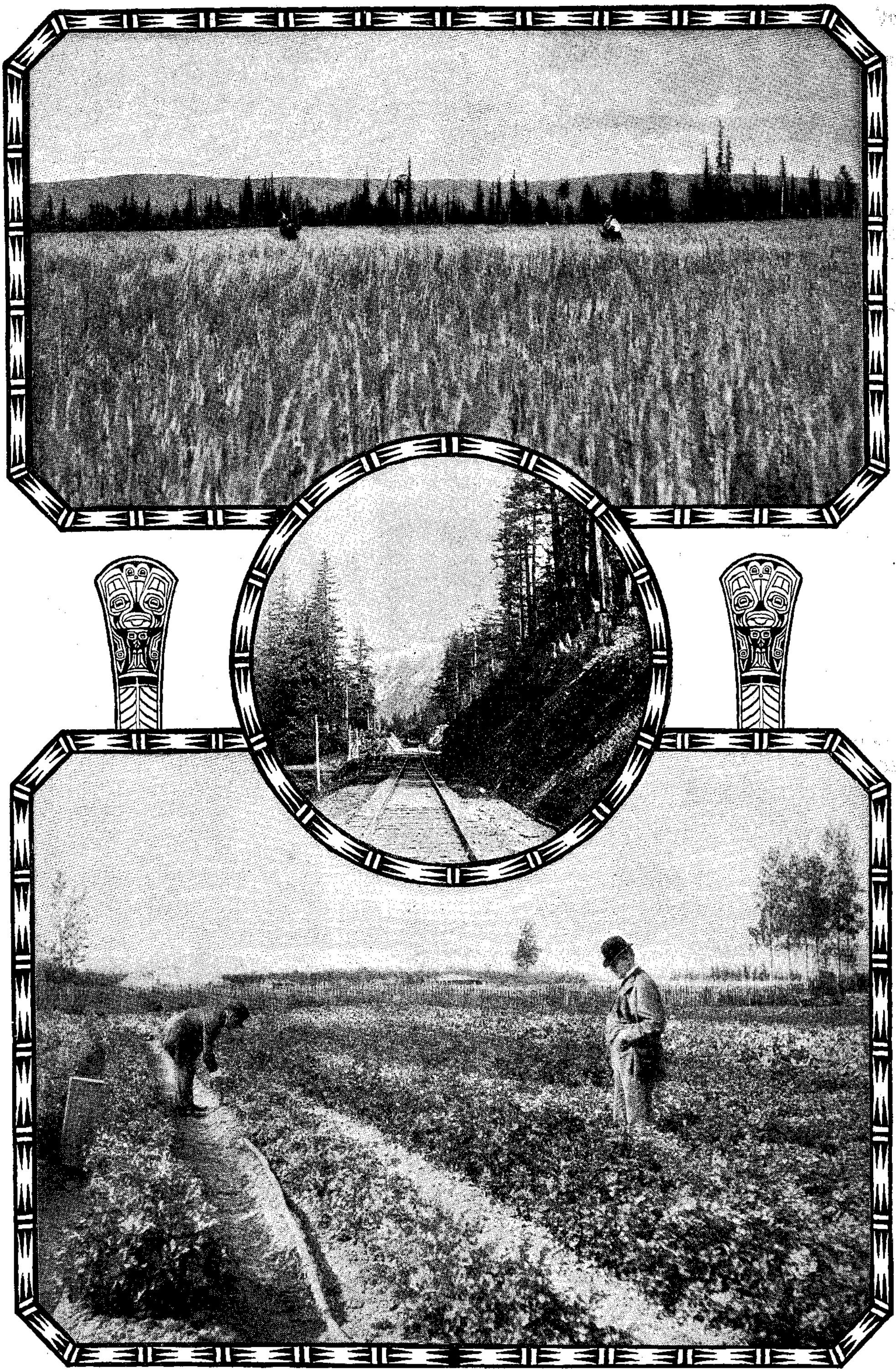
The Morgan-Guggenheim syndicate, in addition to being accused of owning all the copper in the Territory, is accused of clutching at all the coal lands. More particularly it is charged with having some sort of working agreement with the Cunningham interests, which have thirty-two claims in the Bering River fields, concerning the granting of patents on which there has recently been much discussion.

Unquestionably the belief that there is some connection between the builders of the railway and the Cunningham claimants is based upon the unreasonable nature of the supposition that conservative capital would not build a railway through an isolated wilderness without some assurance of an adequate fuel supply. Even if this is true, what are the conditions?

The thirty-two Cunningham claims consist of 5,120 acres of land. There are in this one field alone 550 claims measuring 88,000 acres. In the Bering River and Matanuska fields together there are 900 claims of 160 acres each. To get at this coal for the operation of the mines there must be built more than fifty miles of railway, thereby opening up another inaccessible and important area, and terminal facilities for handling it must be provided, besides the incurring of the expense of large primary development. Yet these holdings would be less than six per cent of the area already located. And failing this resource, the railway must pay from $12 to $14 a ton to run engines through an uninhabited wilderness.

These facts are quoted merely as an instance of the popular misapprehension of conditions in Alaska and as illustrating the infinite possibilities of injustice and injury to the forces developing a pioneer country of especially forbidding aspect—forbidding, of course, because so largely unknown. To a degree this parellels the situation in the Philippines, except that in the latter case, because of the throttling nature of the laws, the Government itself has been forced to promote all railway construction and guarantee interest on the bonds. Private enterprise has refused to interest itself, and this is one of the lessons of the Philippines Commission.

One interesting example of the difference between individual license and corporate liberty is presented by the gold rushes into Alaska. In the beginning a great horde of unrestrained miners tore at the breast of Mother Earth and drew forth the gold that was easily reached. Wholly unrestrained either by law or a sense of obligation toward the land they were looting, the waste was enormous, and when they departed they left behind them nothing but great heaps of "tailings" and apparently worthless heaps of earth. The conservation of corporations is now turning this waste into wealth, establishing a permanent industry, a per-



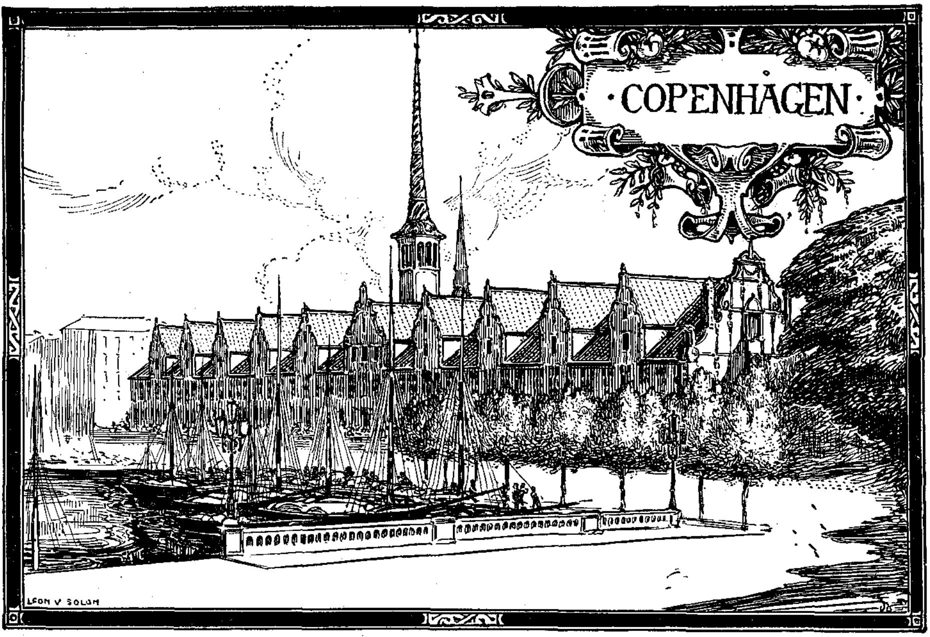
THE UPPER PICTURE SHOWS A GRAIN-FIELD OF THE FERTILE TANANA VALLEY. THE MIDDLE PICTURE SHOWS THE LUMBER LAND ALONG THE COPPER RIVER. THE LOWER PICTURE SHOWS AN ALASKAN TRUCK-GARDEN manent population, and that transportation which is opening and developing the country for the farmer and the industrial worker, who always follow the first unbridled rush.

This indicates the great question that must be decided in working out the governmental policy for Alaska in its formative state, and it is one that cannot properly be met by a native legislature, which must necessarily be made up of people unused to the task of government and perhaps of demagogic tendencies, nor yet by an irresponsible commission that is not closely in touch with the Territory's needs. Less general in the economic principle involved, but no less general so far as the entire Territory of Alaska is concerned, are the other questions of policy and legislation which must be met in a manner free from sectional prejudice. This Commission will have to deal with the modification of legislation for the different parts of the country; to regulate the opening of saloons and govern the matter of licenses; to develop the educational system and control the opening of the schools in incorporate towns; to open roads promptly where needed on account of new mining development and to construct permanent roads when justified; to establish quickly the resources for law and order in new mining communities; to grant railway facilities under the varying terms of development as conditions justify; to have authority over inspection of river steamers. As it stands now, inspection technicalities perfectly proper elsewhere and certain laws of pilotage equipment and the like are applied without the slightest regard to their real value in Alaska, and other things of equal importance are neglected. All such details as whistle, gong, and signals, the location of pilot-houses, the equipment of life rafts, and the like need to be considered in view of the local conditions.

The mail contract is another matter particularly needing local authority. Remarkable diversity of seasons which require sometimes a pack-horse, sometimes a dog-sledge, and sometimes a river steamer, in turn, ought to be a special reason for leaving the contract to local authority. At present Washington advertises for bids for an extended rate of maximum weights of mail to be carried, and this must either be set far too high for normal needs or far too low for abnormal needs. The contractors find no elasticity, and the public sometimes gets all its mail and sometimes finds that tons of mail have been left undelivered at the coast. The Government pleads that it cannot afford to carry second and third class mail in winter, when expenses are so high, although the people of Alaska would be glad to pay whatever is necessary to haul all their mail to them. The American post-office has no provision for which extra rates can be charged in winter for exceptionally expensive service, but an Alaskan Commission could readily appropriate money for such a purpose.

Beyond these concrete examples there are many needs of the Territory in which, by all logic and precedent, the Federal Government should be deeply interested, such as river and harbor improvements and the proper lighting of the 5,000 miles of coast-line now traversed under great difficulties by treasure-laden ships.

Throughout Alaska may be found the feeling to-day that the physical needs of the Territory have not been sufficiently considered by Congress in the way of appropriations, in view of the great revenue it has turned into the National treasury. Alaskans are quite willing to bear the burden of what development it is proper for them to bear, or even more, but feel something of a sense of injustice that the wealth they have produced in part should be so completely devoted to other purposes and their own needs overlooked. A Territorial form of government, purely local in character, with its seat so far from Washington, would not necessarily attract the consideration of Congress. A Commission created by Congress might easily be expected to create a close tie between Washington and the Territorial capital, such certainly having been the case in the instance of the Philippine Commission, of which President Taft was the first head.



A Commonwealth Ruled by Farmers

The Third of Five Articles on Industrial Democracy in Europe

By Frederic C. Howe

With Drawings by Leon V. Solon

DENMARK is a farmer State. It has a farmer Parliament, a farmer Ministry, a farmer point of view. Its legislation is that of the farmer too.

Most countries are ruled by a class. It may be by a landed aristocracy, it may be by a commercial oligarchy. And most people accept the rule of a class as the most natural thing in the world. In Denmark the people really rule, and they rule in the interest of a larger percentage of the people than in any country I know, unless it be in Switzerland. The Danish peasant is the direct antithesis of the English peasant, who wants to be ruled by a lord. The peasant in Denmark wants to be ruled by a peasant like himself. Nor does he intrust his Government to members from the cities, to the lawyers, or to the large landowners. Denmark is suspicious of Copenhagen, its largest city. Denmark distrusts the lawyer, and the landed aristocracy is only permitted to protest. Copenhagen does not like the rule of the peasants. The permanent official seems to be ashamed of it, and the King employs himself busily in social and personal functions, with the most shadowy powers and with practically no influence on legislation.

The State of Denmark is a peasant democracy. Its ruling class is the small farmer possessing from forty to sixty acres of land, and with an outlook on life that is exclusively agricultural. The present Minister of Agriculture was a workingman whose business was that of thatching roofs. Three or four other members of the

Ministry are small farmers, while all of the Cabinet owe their position to the peasant majority.

COPENHAGEN—A SOCIALIST CITY

While Denmark is a peasant commonwealth, Copenhagen, its capital city, with a population of 500,000, is a Socialist municipality. The Socialists have controlled the administration of the city for years. Strangely enough, they have made but little change in the traditions of the city or the programme of the men who preceded them. And Copenhagen accepts its Socialist administration with much more equanimity than it does its peasant Parliament. A Parliamentary election took place while I was in Copenhagen, and the dominant issue with Conservative and Radical alike was that of militarism. Should the country be fortressed and garrisoned, or should it protect itself by being unarmed and peaceful? The result of the election was not conclusive. The strange thing about the campaign was that the landed and commercial classes agreed in advance to bear the cost of the military programme by means of a progressive income tax. Ordinarily, war and the preparations for war are paid for by consumption taxes borne by the poor, by those who also offer their lives at the front.

On other questions party lines are not very acutely drawn. There is no strong business interest about which to form another party. One would expect an alliance between the peasant and the Socialist. But such is not the case. Both the Socialist and the peasant seek the political support of the *Hussman*, *i.e.*, the very small landowner, of whom there are 130,000 in the country, and who up to the present time have kept the peasant class in power. There are also the agricultural laborers. They form the lowest rung in the social ladder, with the great estate owner at the top, the peasant farmer in the middle, and the *Hussman* and the farm laborer at the bottom.

THE DANISH PEOPLE

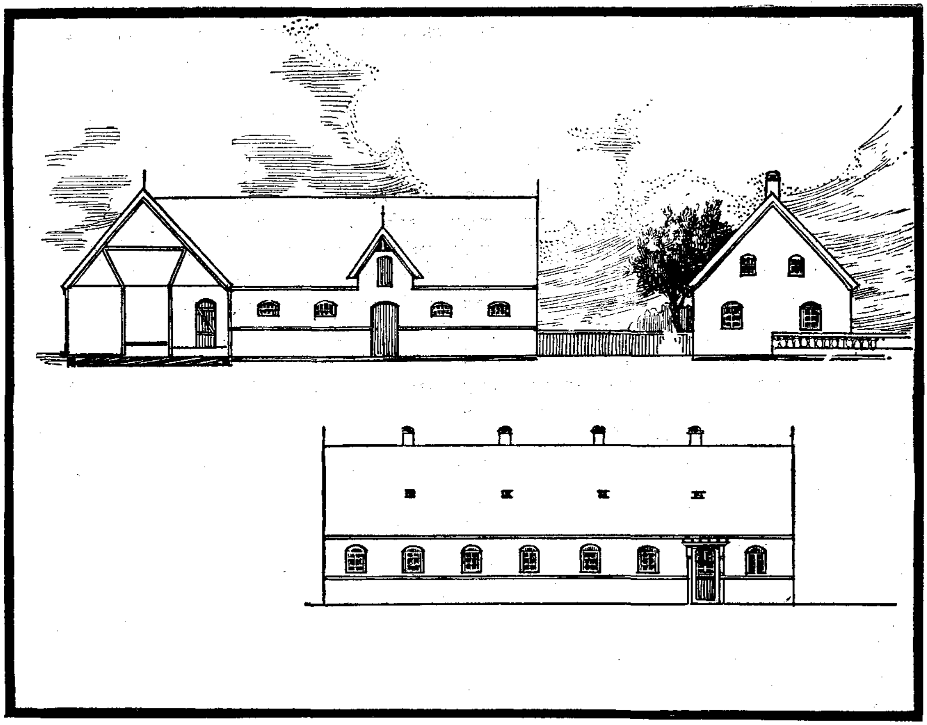
Denmark is nearly twice the size of Massachusetts. It has about the same population, 2,500,000. The Danes are pure Teutons and Protestants. But they are light-hearted, café-loving, and in no sense intolerant or Puritanical in their religion, which is State Lutheran. They are among the most universally educated people in the world. There is practically no illiteracy here. And there is but little poverty. There were thousands of men out of employment in Copenhagen during the recent hard times, but there are no slums such as we have, and little apparent misery. Wages are relatively high, and the standard of living is much above that of most sections of Europe. There is not that degraded condition which one sees in England, Belgium, or even in Germany.

THE CAUSE OF WELL-BEING

One would not expect this. For Denmark is a rather unfertile spur of northern Europe. The land is far from rich, the climate is not of the best, and the winters are very long. But the Danish peasant owns his land. Denmark is a country of peasant proprietors. This is the economic framework of his civilization. The traditions of the country are those of home-owners. The land of England, Prussia, Russia, and Belgium is still in the hands of feudal overlords. It is worked by tenants or by hired labor. But the Danish peasant is his own landlord, and he has made use of the Government to promote the acquisition of land by the people.

About 1850 credit societies were organized which supplied capital to the peasants with which to buy land. These societies took long-time mortgages, running from fifty to one hundred years. Under these contracts the peasants pay off both the principal and the interest in installments. Most of the peasants chose the long-time mortgages, and are still making payments upon them. The rate of interest, including amortization charges, is generally four per cent, and the period of the mortgage and the terms of payment and administration free the peasant entirely from any fear of his creditor.

In 1899 and in 1904 the State stimulated this movement still further by laws that enabled the small peasants to borrow money from the State treasury with which to buy a holding. Under this law the value of the land is limited to about $1,600, and the size of the estate so pur-



PLAN FOR DANISH FARM BUILDINGS

All farm land in Denmark is valued for assessment on the basis of the average annual crop which the land is capable of yielding. These plans are for a farm estimated at 60 tonder, the tonder being the standard measure of farm value. The Government experts are very accurate in their calculations as to the fertility of land, making minute chemical analysis of the soil, and taking into consideration any exceptional conditions likely to be encountered by the farmer

chased ranges from eight to twelve acres. Only one-tenth of the purchase money need be found by the purchaser. The State advances the other nine-tenths and charges the peasant four per cent, one per cent of which is to repay the loan. This law was expected to create a great demand for small estates, but up to the end of 1907 only about three million dollars had been advanced under it and 3,175 farms purchased, the average loans of the State being less than one thousand dollars. The effect of the law was to increase the value of the land of the large estate owners, just as has the Small Holding Act in Great Britain. But the general effect of the legislation and of the mutual credit societies has been to check the movement of the people away from the land. Denmark is almost the only country where this is true.

PEASANT PROPRIETORSHIP

There is very little tenancy in Denmark. Over 89 per cent of the farmers own their farms. They work their own holdings. Only about 11 per cent are tenants. In America the percentage of farm ownership is very much less. In 1900 only 64.7 per cent of our farmers owned their farms. More than one-third were already tenants. And ownership in Denmark is widely distributed. According to the latest published statistics, the land is divided as follows:

Size of farms.	Number of farms.	Total number of acres in the class.
Less than 1½ acres.....	68,000	25,000
From 1½ to 13½ acres..	65,000	450,000
From 13½ to 40 acres...	46,000	1,150,000
From 40 to 150 acres....	61,000	5,900,000
From 150 to 650 acres..	8,000	2,100,000
More than 650 acres....	822	1,150,000

The total number of farms is 250,000, with a cultivated area of over ten million acres. The very large farms are survivals of the old feudal estates. They comprise about one-tenth of the total agricultural area. These estates are not worked on the tenant basis, but by hired labor, which, by reason of the ease with which the peasants secure land, is difficult to obtain. In consequence the land-lords import foreign laborers from Poland, who work on the estates during the summer months and return home during the winter.

By reason of this fact the large owners have co-operated in the development of peasant proprietorship. They sell their lands and accept in return the credit securities of the farmers' loan societies or money advanced by the State. But while the net result of this is good, and while the peasant is infinitely better off from every point of view than the agricultural tenant of other countries, still he is heavily burdened with debt. The land of Denmark is said to be mortgaged up to fifty per cent of its value, a great part of the mortgages being held by German investors, to whom the Danish peasant is paying over one hundred million dollars a year in interest. Moreover, the changes brought about in agriculture in recent years have involved heavy expenditure for machinery for dairy and farm purposes, which has still further increased the indebtedness of the peasant.

There are three things which make Denmark unique: The first is the system of peasant ownership; the second is the co-operative movement, which is well-nigh universal; and the third is the political supremacy of the peasant class in politics. The second and third causes are, however, due to the first. For home ownership lies at the root of the Dane's success.

THE SECRET OF HIS SUCCESS

The Dane is the best farmer in the world. The secret of his success is intensive cultivation. The land is minutely divided, the average size of the farms of the first five classes, which comprise nine-tenths of the land, being thirty-nine acres. A man on four acres, the *Hussman*, will make a decent living for himself and for his family. He will have three or four cows and possibly fifteen pigs. He will produce his own vegetables and some eggs and poultry.

The hundred thousand peasants with farms ranging from 13½ to 150 acres, who own about seven-tenths of the land, live very much better. They work their farms partly with hired labor, are well educated, and devote a lot of time to politics and the co-operative undertakings with which they are connected. They are the ruling class in the State, and are as wise as the traditional Jew and as canny as the Scot. They control the politics of their district and are ascendent in Parliament as well. They know all about the most technical agriculture, are familiar with prices current, are rather skilled mechanics and good chemists. They are saturated with a knowledge of agriculture, and are not consumed with the ambition to be rich or to acquire more land. Their only ambition is to be good farmers. They take an active and constant interest in the thousands of co-operative societies, in the various savings and credit institutions, and are familiar with all of the laws which bear upon their business.

DENMARK A MARKET GARDEN

The Dane has made his land a dairy farm. Denmark is cultivated like a market garden. The chief products are butter, eggs, bacon, poultry, and fine stock. A generation ago, like the farmers of England, the Dane was threatened with extinction by the wheat-fields of America, Russia, and the Argentine Republic. But he did not throw up his hands, as did the English landowner, and convert his land into pasture fields. Neither did he go to Parliament, as did the great estate owners of Germany, and demand a protective tariff. The Danish peasant is self-reliant. And he is a convinced free-trader. He looked about for other markets. He found that England was buying her butter, eggs, and bacon from Ireland. He sent a commission to that country to ascertain how Ireland produced these things. Then Parliament and the people set to work to convert Denmark into a market garden. That was only a quarter of a century ago. Soon the Danes were producing better bacon, better butter, better eggs, than the Irish. Within the last few years no less than four special commissions have been to Denmark from Ireland and Scotland to find out how it is done. For the Danes have captured the English market. And they have done it by improving upon Irish methods.

Denmark is now exporting to Germany, to England, to South America, and even to the Philippines. Here are the statistics of the export business. They are in round numbers. Except for the year 1908, the average for a five-year period is given:

	Average Exports 1875–1879.	Average 1895–1899.	Exports for 1908.
Horses...	$1,750,000	$2,909,000	$3,000,000
Cattle....	5,250,000	3,000,000	7,000,000
Bacon and Lard...	750,000	12,000,000	26,500,000
Butter....	6,500,000	30,000,000	45,750,000
Eggs......	250,000	3,000,000	6,600,000
Total.....	$14,500,000	$50,909,000	$88,850,000

Most of the horses and cattle go to Germany. The bulk of the balance of the exports go to England. The total export trade is approximately $380 for every farm, of which 133,000 of the 250,000 are of less than 13½ acres in extent and have an average size of but 3.6 acres, the average of all of the farms being but 43 acres for the entire country. The export business alone amounts to nine dollars per acre in addition to the domestic consumption as well as the support of the farmer himself.

AGRICULTURE A TECHNICAL BUSINESS

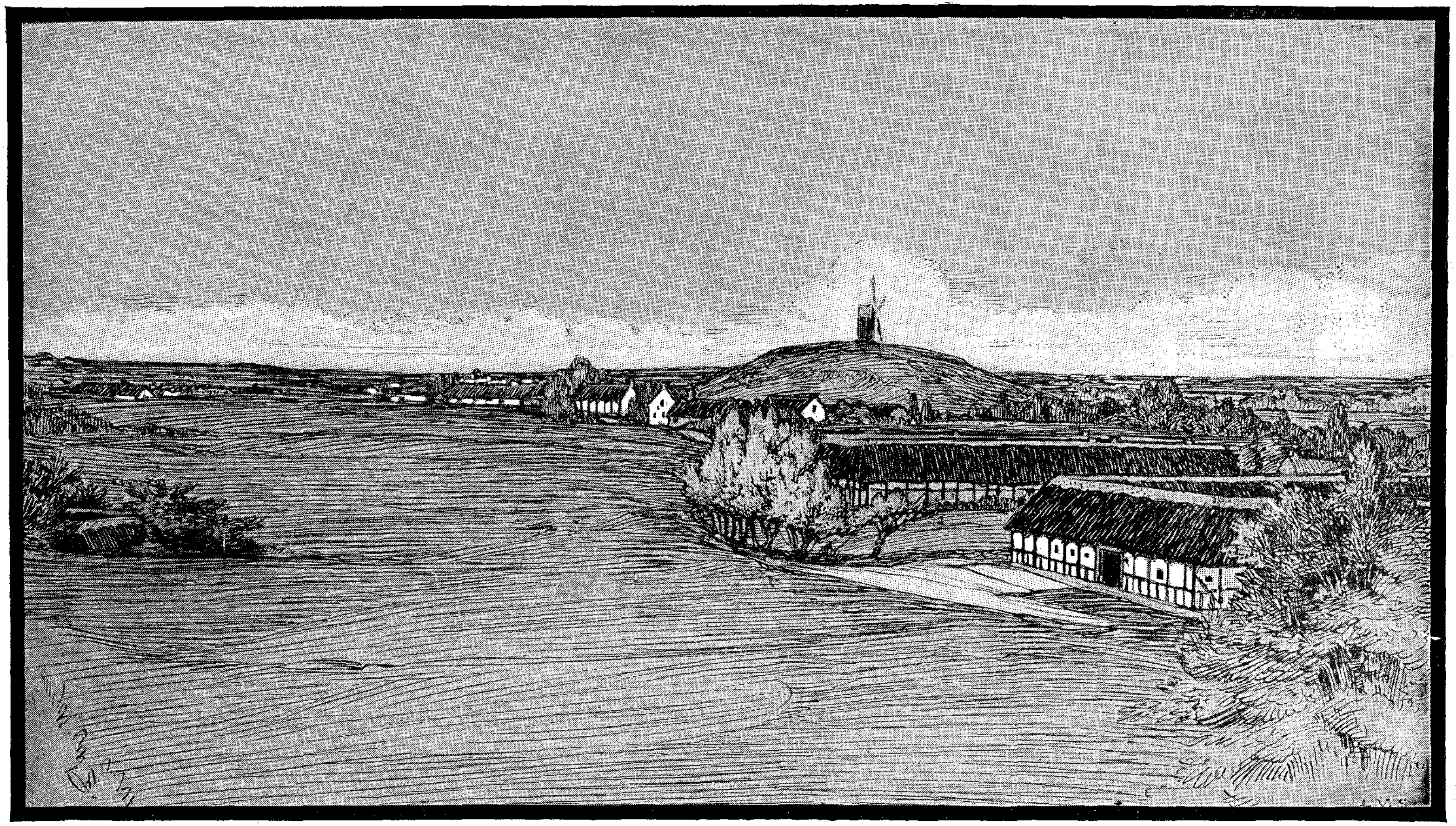
How has this been accomplished? By making agriculture a business of the most technical kind. The Danish farmer is an expert. He is also a student. He has studied the breed of horses until he knows what can be raised to the best advantage, and what the German most wants. The same is true of cattle, hogs, and chickens. He knows to a nicety just how a cow should be fed to produce the best butter. He knows how to breed the best hogs. He makes his butter and produces his eggs of a uniform quality. And he packs them so that they will please. He insists upon the most exact kind of Government supervision over the slaughter-houses, in order that the reputation of the country may not suffer from an indifferent producer, and follows up the least complaint from a foreign market. He has ceased to feed his cattle in the open. He feeds them in the stall all the year round. He has studied their food, and uses oil-cakes from New Orleans and Japan, and maize from the Continent. Each week there arrives at Copenhagen a steamer from New Orleans laden with oil-cakes for feeding. He collects his manure with the greatest care, and saves all of the refuse from the co-operative dairy and other establishments for the enrichment of his farm.

He is aided in this in countless ways by the State. The State is always at his service. Commissions are sent abroad to study foreign markets and foreign methods. Stock is bred from the best studs and bulls. Chickens are selected for their qualities as egg producers. Soil is studied, and the latest agricultural and dairy implements are bought, either co-operatively or by groups of men in the same village.

THE CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT

The other great factor is co-operation. The Danish farmer gets all that he produces—absolutely all. The State owns the railways and protects the farmer from exploitation. And he himself performs all of the processes of production, distribution, and exchange. He has eliminated one middleman after another until he is almost as self-contained as was his ancestor of three hundred years ago, whose only knowledge of the outside world was gained at the local village fair, where he went to barter his goods. The co-operative movement began with dairying. Up to about 1880 each farmer made his own butter. It was very costly and there was no uniformity in the product. About this time a new device was invented for butter-making. A number of farmers got together and purchased one of the machines. Its success was immediate. Other villages followed. To-day there are 1,087 co-operative dairies, with a membership of 158,000 farmers. There are also 200 other private dairies. Nearly 95 per cent of the farmers are members of the co-operative dairies, which ship nearly one million dollars' worth of butter a week to England. Then the farmers began to use skim milk for feeding their hogs. The bacon business became a by-product. Then they organized co-operative slaughter-houses, which are located in districts. There are now 34 of these co-operative abattoirs, with a membership of 90,000 and an annual business of 1,100,000 hogs.

The Danish Co-operative Egg Export Society was the next organization. It was organized in 1895. It now has 57,000 members. The eggs are collected



TYPICAL DANISH FARM LANDS

and stamped each day in a local circle. Then they are sent to larger circles for export. In 1908 the export egg business amounted to $6,600,000. Danish eggs bring fancy prices. For they are always fresh. They are better packed than any others, and are carefully graded. By these means the Dane has more than doubled the price which he receives for his butter. He saves the profits which formerly went to the jobber. The same is true of bacon and eggs.

Some years ago there was formed in London a trust to control the bacon industry. It fixed the price to the farmer and the price to the consumer as well. This spelled disaster to the Danish farmer. But he met this danger as he had his former difficulties, by co-operation. He formed a selling agency of his own. The Danish Bacon Company of London not only destroyed the trust, it insured to the Danish farmer a secure market for his produce. Thus the farmer gets all that his labor produces. He is not despoiled by warehousemen, by railway or other monopoly charges. He gets the full value of his product in dividends at the end of the year, the profits refunded to him being measured by the amount of his output.

The peasant is also his own banker. There are 536 co-operative savings banks in the country. Here the farmer places his savings. Here he goes when he wants a loan. The deposits in 1906 amounted to $208,500,000, and the number of depositors to 1,352,000 (over half of the population), with an average deposit of $154. Now the peasant is talking of organizing a great central bank for the whole country, a bank which will include all of the co-operative societies and all of the labor unions as well.

But the co-operative story does not end here. The farmer does his own buying at wholesale. Through these purchasing societies he buys food for his cattle. Almost everything that he consumes comes to him at cost. It is purchased by central agencies made up from representatives of local agencies. The goods are then distributed to the stores, one of which is to be found in every village. Thus he gets his agricultural implements. Thus he buys his food and all his supplies. He saves the profits of the jobber and the retail dealer for himself. The turnover of the purchasing societies in 1907 was $17,500,000.

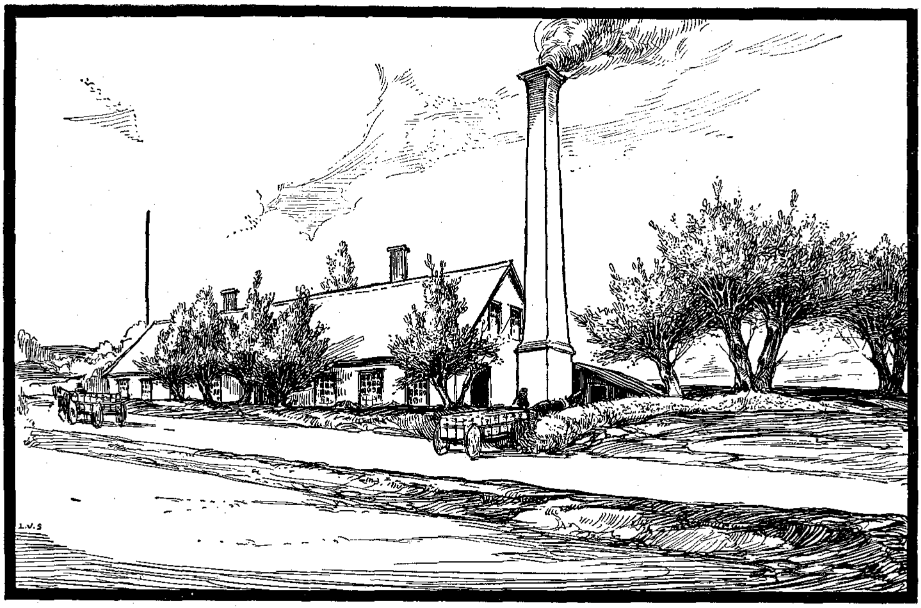
EDUCATION

As was before stated, there is no illiteracy in Denmark. School attendance is compulsory up to the age of fourteen. This is usually followed by a period of from three to four years when the children work on the farm. Above the elementary schools are the high schools. They are privately organized, but practically all of them receive aid from the State. The courses are of five months' duration. The boys attend in the winter and the girls in the summer. The tuition is small and the students live in the schools. The schools are very eclectic, and there is no necessary uniformity in the courses. And there are no examinations. All of them emphasize history, especially Danish history. Literature is taught, as are bookkeeping, business, and everything of value on the farm. There are forty-two of such schools in the country. They are, in a sense, patriotic institutions. They cannot be compared to the American high school or the German gymnasium. They are an indigenous product.

Along with these high schools are the agricultural colleges, of which there are twenty-nine. They give a very thorough course in all of the things that relate to Danish agriculture. They also are aided by the State.

It is through these high schools and agricultural colleges that the Dane is educated. There are over six thousand students in attendance. The boys are trained in agricultural chemistry, in stock-breeding, in seeds, in the management of co-operative establishments. In addition, an immense amount of what might be termed extension work is going on all of the time. There are lectures and circle work. Excursions are made to Copenhagen and elsewhere, while the co-operative societies have special text-books for the use of the farmers. The papers and the magazines are universally read, while constant political and agricultural meetings are being held.

Everybody in Denmark seems to be an agitator of some kind. And Danish cul-



A CO-OPERATIVE DAIRY OF DENMARK

ture is a product of it all. It is not hard and fast, it is a part of the thought of every one. The education of the peasant is like the information of the American baseball "fan." It is a part of his life. The Danish peasant is saturated with the culture of his nation, the culture which has come from the mastery of his subject and a knowledge of the politics of the country.

POLITICAL CONDITIONS

The peasant also controls the politics of the State. He has only been conscious of his power during the last ten years. The Rigsdag is composed of two houses. The upper house is indirectly elected or its members are appointed by the King. It is rather more conservative than the lower house, but it does not use its power to revise or check legislation, for it would receive no support from the country if it did. The lower house is popularly elected. Of the 114 members 55 are peasants. There are also 24 Socialists. The others are Liberals, with a sprinkling of Conservatives. The peasants control the Ministry, but are largely guided by the experience and wisdom of the permanent official class. The legislation which has been passed is of a decidedly democratic and progressive sort. The Government is obviously class conscious, for the peasant assumes and other classes admit that the State is an agricultural one, and should be administered in the interest of agriculture. Education is generously supported, as are art and the State institutions. About a fourth of the revenues are spent on the army and the navy. There is an excellent system of old age pensions.

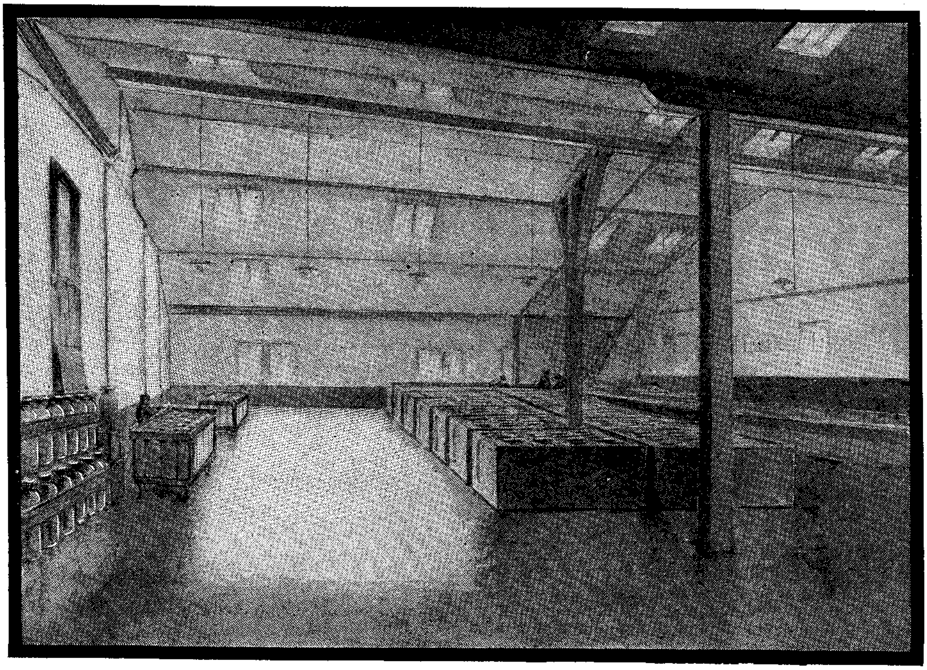
At the last session of Parliament a law was enacted which is indicative of the open-mindedness of the peasant, even when his own interests are involved. The State is planning to build twenty-seven lines of new railways, involving in all from 400 to 500 miles of track. It was recognized that the building of these railways would increase the value of the adjoining land. It was suggested that the road should be paid for by special assessments, and all of the increase in land value should be appropriated by the State to pay for the construction. The Ministry advocated that one-half of the increment should be so appropriated. But the measure as passed provides that the land shall be valued after the roads are completed and a tax shall be levied on the unearned increment equal to one-third of the value which has been added to the estates of the landowner. It has been estimated that this alone will pay for the cost of the roads. A similar law was passed providing for the building of a harbor at Esbjerg. Under the law, the city is to pay one-half of the cost, but is permitted to take one-half of the unearned increment to pay for its contribution to the enterprise.

Aside from the issue of militarism, one of the chief issues is over the taxation of land values. This is the last State in the world where such an issue would seem likely to arise. For nowhere else do so many people own land. But the great bulk of the holders have very small farms. And under the system of income taxation which obtains the State arbitrarily declares that the taxable income of the *Hussman* shall be twice that of the peasant and three times that of the large owner per unit of land. The State recognizes that the small patch is more productive than the large holding. This makes it obvious to the *Hussman* that he is being taxed on his industry and not on his opportunity. Being a free-trader, he sees no way of rectifying this condition save by the taxation of all land at its capital value. He argues that by this means the large estate will be more readily broken up and that all classes will pay according to their opportunity and not according to their energy. The *Hussman*, too, like the peasant and the artisan, is organized as a class. And at the last three meetings of the Peasant Farmers' Association the following resolution was passed: "The Danish peasant farmers demand the earliest possible abolition of all duties and taxes levied upon articles of consumption or assessed in proportion to income on labor, and in lieu thereof they demand that a tax be imposed on the value of the land, which value is not due to any individual effort, but is derived from the growth and development of the community." This is the essence of the single tax.

THE LESSON OF IT ALL

To this programme the great estate as well as the larger farm owners are opposed. But the petty landowners are twice as numerous as the farmers, and are coming to have a political sense. They, too, desire to see the laws of the country adjusted to their interests and the burdens of taxation shifted from their labor on to a more equitable basis.

What does this experiment station in democracy teach? In the first place, it demonstrates the controlling influence of a system of landownership on the life of a people. Denmark is democratic,



INTERIOR OF A DANISH CO-OPERATIVE DAIRY

enlightened, and self-governed because the great bulk of the people have an interest in the soil. France, Holland, and Switzerland prove the same thing. It shows, too, that poverty can be reduced to a minimum and the well-being of all the people promoted by State aid and co-operation. Even wages in the city are determined by the agricultural situation. The ease with which men live on the farm and acquire holdings of their own compels the employer to compete with the land for his labor. The land question thus lies at the root of the wages question.

Further than this, the Danish farmer appreciates that he is a consumer as well as a producer. He has learned that his success in agriculture is the result of his own efforts. It is not due to any bounty or subsidy from the State. He is not fooled into any belief in protection. He is a free-trader. He buys where he will in the cheapest market, and the cost of living is much below what it is in America. He is not afflicted by trusts or monopolies. There is sufficient competition in the world which seeks him out to enable him to pick and choose, and he is able to get the best that the world offers and at his own price.

Here, too, may be seen voluntary co-operation at its best. The farmer gets all that he produces. And by education and the aid of the State he has increased the productivity of his labor. Like Switzerland and Germany, the little State of Denmark shows that the old philosophy of individualism has broken down, and that there are many activities which the State itself must assume in order to protect the people and promote their common welfare.

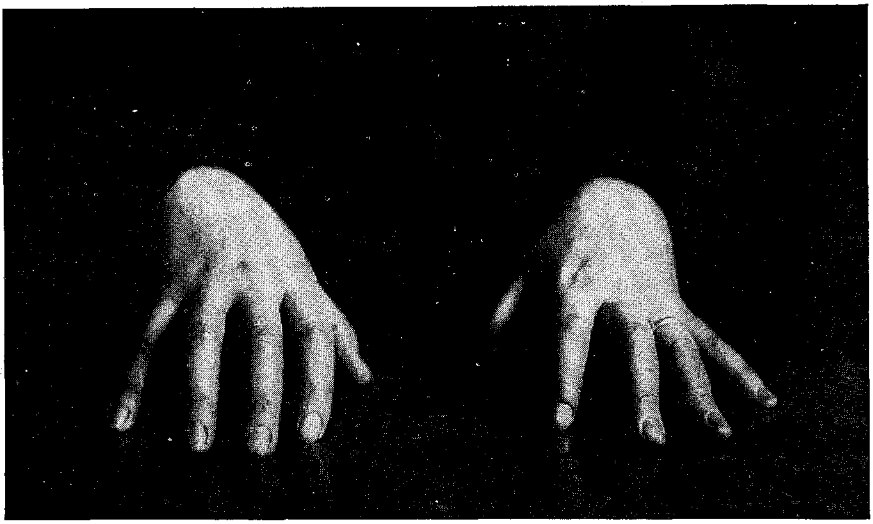
A GOLDEN WEDDING

BY EMILY HUNTINGTON MILLER

"Dear Love," he said, that morning long ago,
"Where Life may lead the wisest cannot know,
Or through what changing weather.
If I could choose, no cloud should dim the sky."
She smiled. "*What matter where the road may lie,*
So we two walk together?"

"Dear Heart," he said, when they had journeyed far,
And the calm radiance of the evening star
Above the hills was shining,
"The road was rough, and Life, the master, taught
Lessons with bitter wisdom sometimes fraught,
Beyond our hearts' divining.

"Yet good has sometimes come from seeming ill,
And Love unchanging led us safely still
Through storms and sunny weather."
She smiled. "*What matter though the road were rough,*
The lessons bitter? This was joy enough,
That we have walked together."



The Ghost Society

And What Came of It

By H. Addington Bruce

PSYCHICAL research, as everybody knows, has for years been vainly endeavoring to gain recognition as a legitimate branch of science. Carried on largely by men of scientific temperament and training, the scientific world has nevertheless steadfastly regarded it with disfavor and suspicion, if not with openly voiced contempt, while the general public has maintained much the same attitude. There has been evident, it is true, an increasing popular interest, particularly in the United States, as not long ago was unmistakably indicated in connection with the arrival from Italy of the much-talked-about " medium " Eusapia Paladino; but, in the main, it is the interest of mere curiosity and love of the sensational.

Yet there are many reasons why psychical research should not only be given a friendly hearing, but should be generously supported both by scientific and by public opinion. The great Gladstone once referred to it as " the most important work which is being done in the world—by far the most important "—and this statement is by no means as extravagant as it sounds. Psychical research is not, as most people seem to take for granted, a matter merely of collecting ghost stories, watching articles of furniture move about mysteriously, and otherwise dabbling in the occult. Its great object is, of course, to determine scientifically whether or not there is life beyond the grave. But it also has another side, and one that involves considerations of the utmost practical importance to humanity.

In their quest for scientific proof of life after death the psychical researchers have from time to time made discoveries that throw a flood of entirely new light on the nature of man, and more particularly on the processes and powers of the human mind. They have confirmed, and to no small extent anticipated, the discoveries of the French psychopathologists, or medical psychologists, whose activities I described in my recent article on the mental healing of to-day.[1] To them, scarcely less than to the psychopathologists, is due the present general recognition of the tremendous influence exercised by "suggestion" in the lives of men, and the part played by the "subconscious" in determining the physical, intellectual, and moral development of the individual. They have thus placed modern medicine, psychology, sociology, criminology, and pedagogy heavily in their debt.

Sometimes the debt is frankly acknowledged, and by scientists who have little or no sympathy with the ultimate aim of psychical research, believing it to be quite impossible to obtain scientific proof of the future life. Only recently our two leading psychopathologists—Dr. Morton Prince and Dr. Boris Sidis—told me that the inspiration for their life-work came to them, not from the French pioneers of psychopathological investigation, but from two English psychical researchers.

"It was through reading Edmund Gurney's reports on his experiments with hypnotism," said Dr. Prince, "that my attention was first called to the importance of studying subconscious mental states as a factor in the causation and cure of disease and that I was led to investigate them for myself."

And Dr. Sidis said to me:

"My interest in psychopathology dates from the day I became acquainted with the results of Frederic Myers's preliminary studies of the subconscious. It was Myers who first opened my eyes to the close relationship between psychology and medicine."

These statements should help one to appreciate the force of Gladstone's hearty, unqualified commendation. They should also assist to an understanding of how it comes that, although psychical research has failed to win the slightest recognition from the world of science, individual scientists of the distinction of Professor James, Sir Oliver Lodge, Sir William Crookes, Lord Rayleigh, Professor Morselli, and the late Professor Lombroso have been found willing to engage in the investigation of its debatable phenomena.

The field covered by psychical research is indeed a broad one. When first set on foot, however, about the middle of the last century, following the advent of modern spiritism as expounded by the Fox sisters and their numerous rivals and imitators, its scope was decidedly limited, being practically confined to inquiry into the so-called "physical phenomena"—the raps, table-tipping, materializations, levitations, etc.—of the séance room of that day. Nor was it then conducted on any systematic and soundly scientific basis. As a general rule, the researchers were more than half-way spiritistically inclined before they began their investigations, and, lacking knowledge of the multifarious ways by which the phenomena could be fraudulently produced, were easily imposed upon, became avowed spiritists, and ceased to investigate. Or, if not overcredulous, they had their interest so thoroughly chilled by the proofs of fraud evident on every hand that they soon abandoned their inquiries as wholly useless and unprofitable.

This was the case both in the United States and in England, the two countries where spiritism first obtained a foothold. At only one place—the University of Cambridge—was sustained effort made to get at the "bottom facts." There, in 1850, under the leadership of Edward White Benson, afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury, a number of serious-minded undergraduates organized a "Ghost Society," for the investigation, not only of "mediumistic," but also of all phenomena of a seemingly supernatural character—apparitions, hauntings, and the like. The members industriously attended spiritistic séances, and, by means of a widely distributed circular requesting their friends and acquaintances to report any experiences of their own that seemed at all ghostly, managed to secure a large amount of psychical data of the most varied kind. In this way the Ghost Society (although during the ten or more years of its existence it contributed nothing towards the definite settlement of the problems raised by the experiences reported to it) really did much to lay the foundations of the English Society for Psychical Research, the parent body of modern psychical research associations, and the one to which science owes most.

Indeed, there is a direct connection

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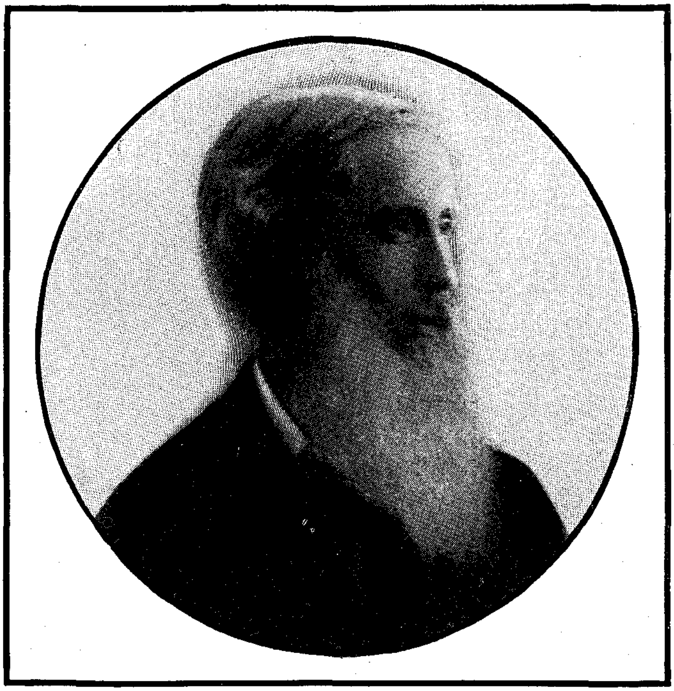
[1] See The Outlook for September 4, 1909.



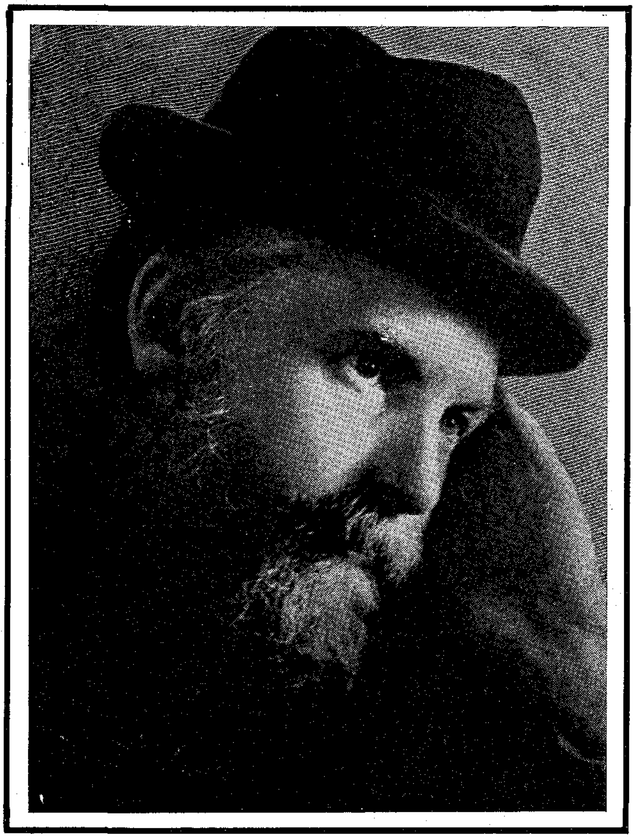
HENRY SIDGWICK

Who was the first President of the English Society for Psychical Research, was also the most active member of the Ghost Society during its later years

between the Ghost Society and the Society for Psychical Research in the fact that the famous English philosopher Henry Sidgwick, who was the first President of the Society for Psychical Research and the controlling influence in its policies from its organization in 1882 until his death in 1900, was also the most prominent and active member of the Ghost Society during its later years. Sidgwick was less than twenty years old when he joined the Ghost Society, but he was even then, as his disciple and friend Frederic Myers has pointed out, eager to ascertain "whether the study of Oriental languages, of ancient philosophies, of history, of science, would throw light upon that traditional Revelation which hung before him with so much of attractiveness in its promises." To Sidgwick's restlessly inquiring mind the phenomena of spiritism offered another and necessary field for investigation, and he plunged into it with ardor, balanced, however, by the keenness of insight, the sanity of judgment, and the profound yet open-minded skepticism that were always his distinctive characteristics. His published correspondence of this period shows that he desired, above all things, to obtain empirical proof to buttress his wavering religious faith, and that he both hoped and doubted that in psychical phenomena such proof might be obtained.

"Spiritualism," he wrote to his friend H. G. Dakyns, "progresses but slowly; I am not quite in the same phase, as I—fancy I!—have actually heard the raps, so that your 'dreaming awake' theory will require a further development. However, I have no kind of evidence to come before a jury. . . . I can only assure you that an evening with 'spirits' is as fascinating to me as any novel. I talk with Arabs, Hindus, Spaniards, Counts Cavour, etc. I yield to the belief at the time, and recover my philosophical skepticism next morning."

Time after time he detected fraud, particularly in the production of the physical phenomena, but continued his investigations, believing that "where there is so much smoke there must be flame." Yet, the Ghost Society having been disbanded, there would, in all likelihood, have come a day when he would have grown weary of



FREDERIC W. H. MYERS

Psychical researcher, philosopher, psychologist, and poet. One of the most brilliant figures in the annals of psychical research

himself, in the beautiful tribute which, on the eve of his own death, he paid to the memory of Sidgwick, has left a most glowing account of its origin.

"In a starlight walk which I shall not forget," said he, "I asked him, almost with trembling, whether he thought that when Tradition, Intuition, Metaphysic, had failed to solve the riddle of the Universe, there was still a chance that from any actual observable phenomena—ghosts, spirits, whatsoever there might be—some valid knowledge might be drawn as to a World Unseen. Already, it seemed, he had thought that this was possible; steadily, though in no sanguine fashion, he indicated some last grounds of hope; and from that night onwards I resolved to pursue this quest, if it might be, at his side."

his seemingly barren labors had it not been for the chance occurrence of a visit paid to him by Frederic Myers in the winter of 1869–70.

Although still in his early manhood, Myers had already given brilliant promise of the poetic genius, the philosophic penetration, and the marvelous command of language that eventually made him one of the greatest masters of English prose that the nineteenth century produced. But he did not come to Sidgwick to discuss literary questions. He was passing through the crisis of religious doubt and anxiety so common to young men of intellect, and in the hour of his sore need he turned to Professor Sidgwick, as to one in whom, while a student at Cambridge, he had found an unfailing counselor and friend. Out of the intercourse they now had together modern psychical research of the systematic, far-reaching, scientific type came into being. Myers

Earnestly the two friends went to work, subjecting to rigid analysis the evidence collected by the old Ghost Society, hunting out and investigating "mediums," and gathering additional data from every possible source. Soon, to their satisfaction, they drew about them a little group of Cambridge men—including Edmund Gurney and Arthur J. Balfour, the latter of whom, of course, is far better known to-day as leader of the British Conservative party than as a psychical researcher—eager, like themselves, to solve, if possible, the "riddle of the Universe." And, although continually encountering fraud, the further they pressed their inquiry the more they became persuaded that at least some psychical phenomena were not explicable by the ordinary hypotheses of deception, delusion, or chance coincidence. But how to determine their true explanation was a problem that seemed beyond them. "Our methods, our canons," as

Myers afterwards explained, "were all to make. In those early days we were more devoid of precedents, of guidance, even of criticism that went beyond mere expressions of contempt, than is now readily conceived."

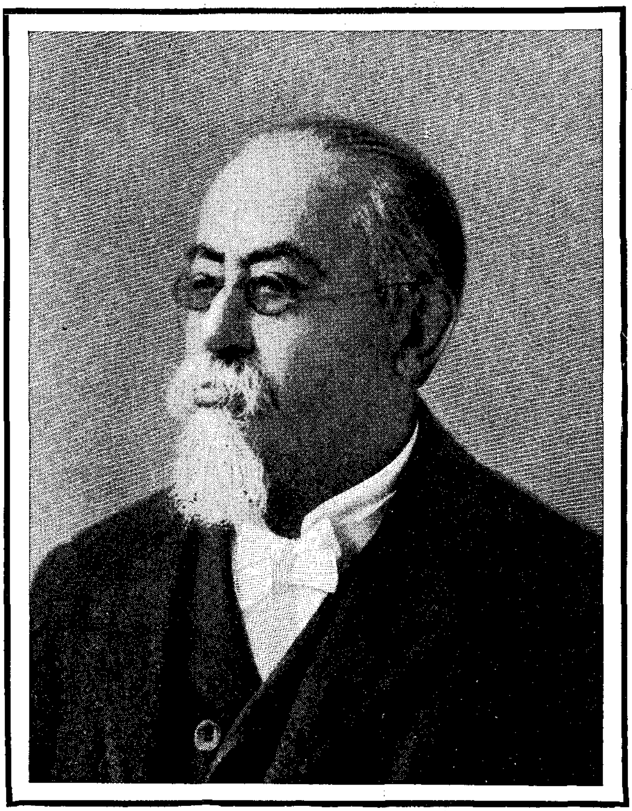
A serious interest in matters psychical was meanwhile becoming evident in other quarters. In 1869 the London Dialectical Society undertook an inquiry into the claims of spiritism, and two years later the famous physicist Sir William Crookes held a series of experimental séances with Daniel Dunglas Home, the only "medium" of the "physical phenomena" type who enjoys the distinction of never having been detected in fraud when subjected to scientific scrutiny. Sir William's public declaration that he believed he had, through Home, succeeded in demonstrating the existence of a hitherto unknown force, brought upon him a storm of ridicule and contempt, but also served to give fresh heart to those who, like Sidgwick and Myers, Gurney and Balfour, felt that the time had come for an exhaustive and well-organized investigation.

Their hopes were raised still higher when, in 1876, Professor W. F. Barrett, of the Royal College of Science, Dublin, at a meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, read a paper on "Some Phenomena Associated with Abnormal Conditions of Mind," in which he described various experiments that tended to prove what the early mesmerists had called "community of sensation" and "clairvoyance," and urged the appointment of a committee of scientific men for the systematic investigation of the phenomena of hypnotism and piritism.

Professor Barrett's appeal fell on deaf ears as far as the British Association was concerned; but it had the effect of bringing him into close touch with the Cambridge group, and of revealing a strong undercurrent of individual opinion in favor of some such investigation as he proposed. Finally, when it had become only too apparent that no already organized scientific body would act, Barrett, Sidgwick, Myers, and Gurney took the initiative, and, at a meeting held in London in 1882, founded the Society for Psychical Research.

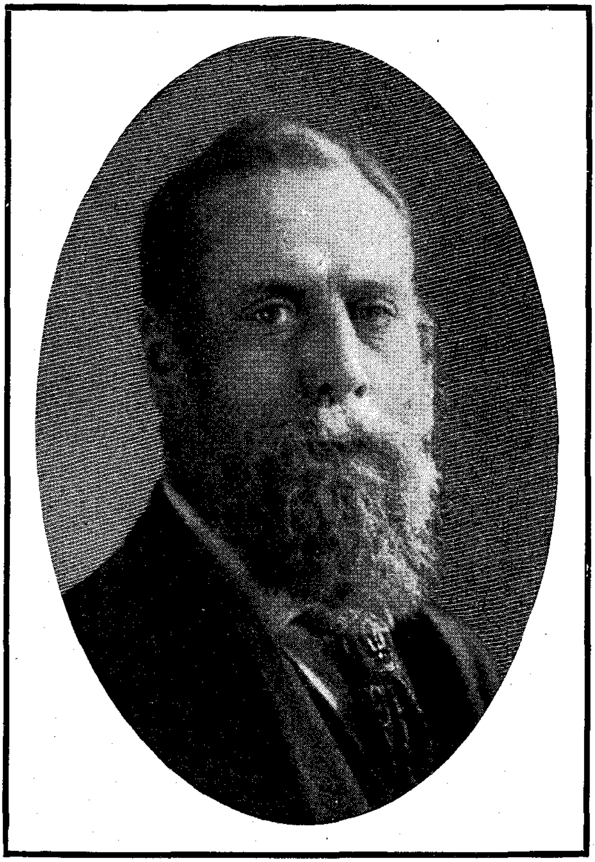
No better idea of its purposes and of the spirit in which it approached its task can be given than by quoting briefly from the preliminary announcement issued by its founders:

> It has been widely felt that the present is an opportune time for making an organized and systematic attempt to investigate that large group of debatable phenomena designated by such terms as mesmeric, psychical, and spiritistic.
>
> From the recorded testimony of many competent witnesses, past and present, in-



CESARE LOMBROSO

The famous Italian scientist who died recently firm in the belief that spirit communication had been definitely proved



RICHARD HODGSON

Who was, until his death in 1905, the Society for Psychical Research's most expert detective of the supernatural

cluding observations recently made by scientific men of eminence in various countries, there appears to be, amidst much illusion and deception, an important body of remarkable phenomena which are *prima facie* inexplicable on any generally recognized hypothesis, and which, if incontestably established, would be of the highest possible value.

The aim of the Society will be to approach these various problems without prejudice or prepossession of any kind, and in the same spirit of exact and unimpassioned inquiry which has enabled Science to solve so many problems, once not less obscure nor less hotly debated. The founders of this Society fully recognize the exceptional difficulties which surround this branch of research; but they nevertheless hope that by patient and systematic effort some results of permanent value may be attained.

Five distinct subjects of inquiry were named in the announcement:

1. An examination of the nature and extent of any influence which may be exerted by one mind upon another, apart from any generally recognized mode of perception.

2. The study of hypnotism, and the forms of so-called mesmeric trance, with its alleged insensibility to pain; clairvoyance and other allied phenomena.

3. A critical revision of Reichenbach's researches with certain organizations called "sensitives," and an inquiry whether such organizations possess any power of perception beyond a highly exalted sensibility of the recognized sensory organs.

4. A careful investigation of any reports, resting on strong testimony, regarding apparitions at the moment of death, or otherwise, or regarding disturbances in houses reputed to be haunted.

5. An inquiry into the various physical phenomena commonly called spiritualistic, with an attempt to discover their causes and general laws.

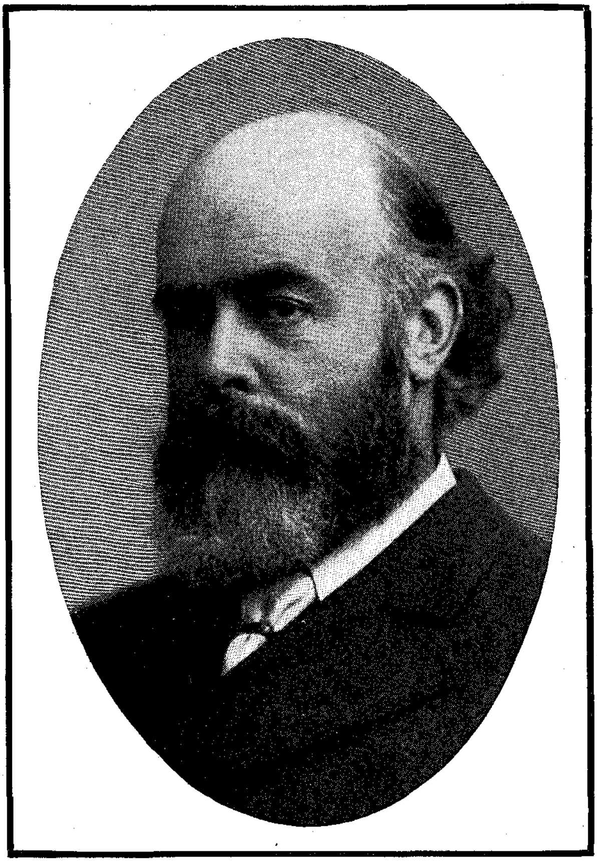
Of the five groups of phenomena thus designated for investigation, inquiry is still proceeding with respect to the first, fourth, and fifth, and, in part, the second. The investigation of the so-called "Reichenbach sensitives" has long been abandoned, it being pretty definitely determined that the phenomena reported were due chiefly to "unconscious suggestion." Of late years, too, the Society has ceased to study hypnotism, or, to be more exact, has delegated that task to its medical members, precisely because, as was said above, medical men, largely in consequence of the early experiments conducted by the Society for Psychical Research, have recognized that the investigation of hypnotism should be carried on by them, and that in it they possess a therapeutic agent of great usefulness.

To be sure, it was not primarily from any desire to demonstrate the therapeutic value of hypnotism that its investigation was undertaken by the Society for Psychical Research. It was rather because the hope was felt that through the study of hypnotism light might be thrown on the first problem marked for solution—namely, the possibility that thought might be communicated from mind to mind without passing through the ordinary recognized channels of communication. The evidence already assembled by the little Cambridge coterie, including, as it did, hundreds of well-authenticated instances of apparitions and other coincidental visions beheld in dream or waking hallucination at the time of the death of the person seen, seemed to point strongly in this direction; while the records of the early French and German, English and American mesmerists, with their weird but constantly recurring tales of clairvoyance, indicated that, if there really were such a thing as "thought transference," a somnambulic state was a favoring condition to it. Accordingly, as soon as possible after the founding of the Society, three special committees were set to work, one exploring the mysteries of the hypnotic trance, the second attempting experiments in thought transference in the waking state, and the third sifting the evidence for spontaneous thought transference, as in apparitions, coincidental dreams, etc.

The detailed records of the experiments may be read in the Society's "Proceedings" for 1883–84, while the evidence for spontaneous thought transference, as brought to the attention of the special committee intrusted with its examination, is contained in two substantial volumes entitled "Phantasms of the Living," written by Edmund Gurney, with the assistance of Mr. Myers and Mr. Frank Podmore. Here it can only be said that, in 1884, after carefully considering the reports of the three special committees, the Society's Literary Committee felt justified in affirming that "our Society claims to have proved the reality of thought transference—of the transmission of thoughts, feelings, and images from one mind to another by no recognized channel of sense." And, later in the same year, in a report dealing with the nature of apparitions, it again explicitly committed the Society to belief in thought transference—or telepathy, to use the more modern term—by saying:

> Our aim is to trace the connection between the most trivial phenomena of thought transference, or confused inklings of disaster, and the full-blown "apparition" of popular belief. And, once on the track, we find group after group of transitional experiences illustrating the degrees by which a stimulus, falling or fallen from afar upon some obscure subconscious region of the percipient's mind, may seem to disengage itself from his subjectivity and emerge into the waking world.

In this passage—written, as was said, in 1884—we come upon a first reference to the "subconscious," that battle-ground of present-day psychological debate and controversy. In their efforts to obtain proof of telepathy the investigators of the Society for Psychical Research had unexpectedly opened up another and most



SIR OLIVER LODGE

The latest prominent psychical researcher to proclaim his acceptance of the spiritistic hypothesis difficult problem. At every turn—in the phenomena of hypnotism, the dreams, the apparitions, that they studied—they found themselves stumbling upon indications that the human mind was a far more intricate affair than was generally supposed. Nay, even the personality, the self, the ego, seemed strangely complicated and unstable, instead of being the simple, indivisible entity of philosophic and popular belief. How account for the amazing alterations it underwent in the hypnotic trance, when, at the hypnotist's bidding, the thoughts, the emotions, the memories of the waking state would be blotted out and an entirely alien personality be created? How account for the similar transformation in cases of hysteria, when one, two, or more personalities might in turn suppress and crowd out the normal self? How, again, explain the marvelous quickening and extension of mental faculty in trance, dream, reverie, when memories long forgotten in the waking state could be recalled with ease, and even scenes and events that at the time of their occurrence had not been consciously observed could be visualized and described in graphic detail? Whence, still further, came the power to apprehend, on rare occasions, yet indubitably, the unuttered thoughts of others, and to gain knowledge of happenings at a distance, as though some mental, unseen telegraph flashed the news through empty air? What did all this signify?

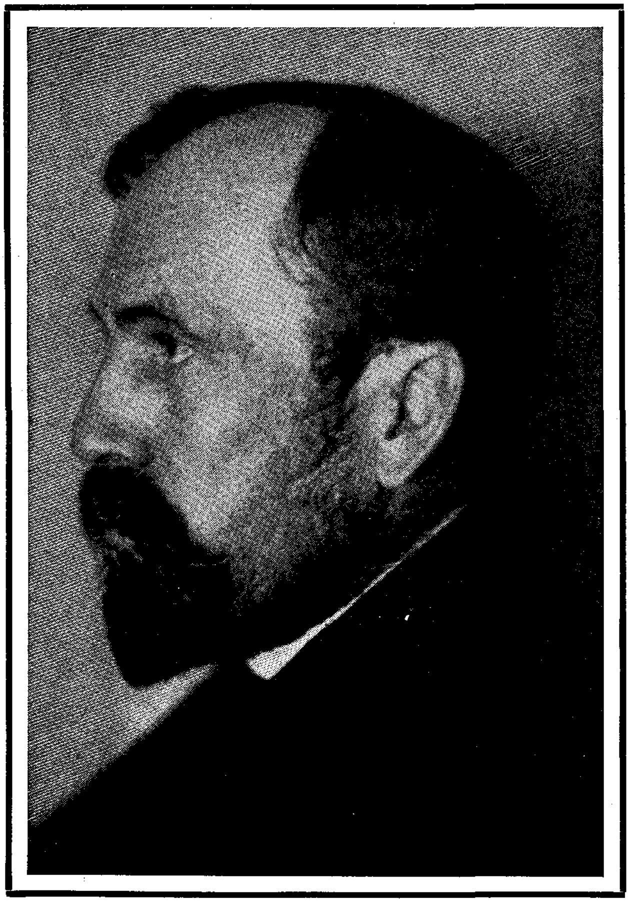
Various answers have been returned by psychical researchers, by psychologists, by psychopathologists, since first this problem was raised a quarter of a century ago. But the answer that has excited the strongest interest and the liveliest discussion is that returned by the man who did most to raise the problem and devoted the remainder of his life to its solution—Frederic Myers. Few as yet accept his answer in its entirety, as given to the world seven years ago in his posthumous work, "Human Personality and its Survival of Bodily Death," wherein is formulated his brilliant, almost dazzling, conception of the "subliminal self."

Surveying the whole wide range of mental phenomena, the singular alterations and disintegrations of personality in disease, its evident limitations of faculty, counterbalanced at times by seemingly supernatural extension of faculty, Myers saw valid reason for asserting that the self of which we are normally aware—the self which one has in mind when he speaks of "my self"—is in reality only a split-off from a larger self, just as the "secondary personalities" of hypnotism and hysteria are split-offs from the self of every-day life. And to this larger self, the subliminal self, he referred, on the one hand, the intellectual uprushes and outpourings of genius and the achievements of humanity in time of stress, when, as the phrase is, a man seems to be "lifted out of himself," inspired with new energy, and capable of accomplishing deeds he had never dreamed possible to him; and, on the other hand, Myers likewise attributed to the subliminal self, as a faculty peculiarly its own, the power of telepathically transmitting messages from mind to mind and receiving and retaining them until some favoring condition permitted their presentation to the ordinary consciousness.

"I do not, indeed, by using the term 'subliminal self' assume," he explained, "that there are two correlative and parallel selves existing always within each of us. Rather, I mean by the subliminal self that part of the self which is commonly subliminal; and I conceive that there may be not only co-operations between these quasi-independent trains of thought, but also upheavals and alternations of personality of many kinds, so that what was once below the surface may, for a time, or permanently, rise above it. And I conceive also that no self of which we can here have cognizance is, in reality, more than a fragment of a larger self—revealed in a fashion at once shifting and limited through an organism not so framed as to afford it full manifestation."

It is the closing sentence, with its implications elaborated in the pages of "Human Personality and its Survival of Bodily Death," that has been the greatest obstacle to scientific acceptance of the "subliminal self." Scientists to-day, or such of them as are really acquainted with the results of the explorations of the psychical researchers and the psychopathologists in the nooks and crannies of the human mind, willingly concede that there is a vast subconscious as well as a conscious mental life, and that the study of the former is quite as important as the study of the latter. But they balk at the idea of regarding the self of ordinary, workaday existence as merely a "fragment of a larger self" hampered by "an organism not so framed as to afford it full manifestation." And they balk still more at the inference that, when the trammels of the body have been shaken off, this larger self attains complete manifestation—an inference which Myers frankly declared had become to him a certainty.

For side by side with his long and patient inquiry into the nature of personality he continued to press tirelessly his inquiry into the greater question of the survival of personality after the body's death. To him, as to his associates, this was the question of supreme importance, and he and they turned to it with a livelier hope once they had established to their satisfaction the actuality of telepathy. For, said they, if spirits still in the flesh can thus communicate with one another, is it not reasonable to suppose that, if there really be survival, discarnate spirits can similarly communicate with their friends yet on earth? If, then, we obtain, through whatever mechanism, information purporting to come from the World Beyond; if that information is of such a character as to afford evidential proof of emanating from the spirit alleged to be communicating; and if such evidential proof is demonstrably not of mundane origin, the problem is solved and survival put beyond the shadow of a doubt.



JAMES H. HYSLOP

Secretary of the American Society for Psychical Research and author of several works on psychical investigation

At once attention was focused again on the phenomena of spiritism. Obviously, however, as the psychical researchers now appreciated more clearly than ever before, if proof of personal identity were what was needed, there was little to be gained from investigating the purely physical phenomena. These might be caused by spirit action, they might be caused by the action of some unrecognized natural force, they might—as had so often proved to be the case—be fraudulently caused. Whatever their cause, they had no bearing on the immediate problem at issue. The spirit of Daniel Webster or Swedenborg or Napoleon might juggle tables and shake tambourines till Doomsday without thereby affording one iota of evidence that the spirit really was Daniel Webster or Swedenborg or Napoleon. By no stretch of the imagination could the gymnastics of the darkened séance room be interpreted as proof of personal identity.

To the "mediums," therefore, who dealt not in furniture-flinging but in the communicating of "spirit-messages" by word of mouth or pen—the "automatic speakers" and "automatic writers"—the members of the Society for Psychical Research turned their attention. Not that they wholly ceased from investigating the "physical" mediums. The admirers of Eusapia Paladino, for instance, are painfully aware that, in 1895, a committee of the Society for Psychical Research caught her practicing the most unblushing fraud, and publicly denounced her as an impostor. But, for the reason stated, and for the additional reason that it is difficult, if not impossible, to persuade "physical" mediums to submit to conditions that will exclude all possibility of fraud, the psychical researchers of England and of the United States[1] have preferred to devote their time to investigating the phenomena and the claims to attention of the "automatists."

At first, however, it seemed as though trustworthy automatists were as hard to find as trustworthy "physical" mediums. Either they were detected obtaining by fraudulent means the information which they pretended to transmit from the world of spirits, or else it quickly became evident that they were simply "reading the minds" of their "sitters." Nor did the situation improve until 1885, when the now world-famous automatist, Mrs. Leonora Piper, was for the first time brought to the attention of the Society by Professor William James, who, the previous year, had been active in the founding of an American Society for Psychical Research, an organization which, like the English Society, had some distinguished names on its membership roll, including those of such men as Phillips Brooks, Colonel Higginson, Andrew D. White, and Professors James, Newcomb, Langley, Royce, Pickering, Gray, and Jastrow, and others.

In his report on Mrs. Piper to the English Society Professor James declared that he was "persuaded of the medium's honesty and of the genuineness of her trance," and that he believed her "to be in possession of a power as yet unexplained." Sidgwick and Myers and their fellow-researchers were inclined to be skeptical, as they well might be in view of the amount of fraud and chicanery they had unearthed. But, Professor James insisting on Mrs. Piper's unusual trance abilities, it was decided, in 1887, to send to America a special agent, Dr. Richard Hodgson, who had already proved his fitness for such a mission by conclusively exposing the fraudulent practices of the high priestess of Theosophy, Madame Blavatsky.

Dr. Hodgson's first step on arriving in the United States was to employ private detectives to spy on both Mrs. Piper and her husband, with a view to discovering whether either of them went about inquiring into the affairs of prospective sitters or received such information through the mail. But absolutely nothing suspicious developed, and Dr. Hodgson finally had to confess himself so baffled and perplexed

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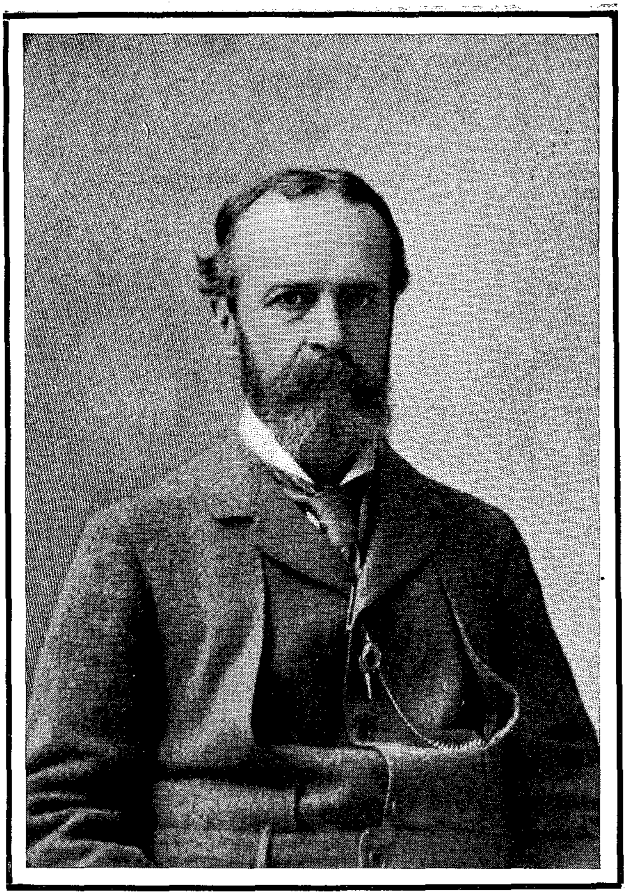
[1] Things are different on the European Continent, where, as is well known, the "physical" mediums, and more particularly Eusapia Paladino, have almost monopolized the attention of the various eminent men of science—Flammarion, Lombroso, Morselli, Bottazzi, etc.—who have become interested in psychical research. The only explanation of this, it seems to me, is that the European investigators are less concerned with proving the survival of personality than with ascertaining the exact nature of the power displayed by the medium. And, after reading their voluminous reports, one cannot avoid the suspicion that they are, as a class, less cautious and critical than the psychical researchers of England and America; though, as far as that goes, it is difficult to account for the recent action of the English Society in consenting to a second official investigation of Eusapia Paladino, and thus breaking its long-established and excellent rule of having nothing further to do with mediums once detected in fraud.



WILLIAM JAMES

America's greatest psychologist and a pioneer of psychical research in the United States

that it was determined to invite Mrs. Piper to visit England and submit to investigation under conditions that would make fraudulent acquisition of knowledge impossible. The plan, as actually carried out, was to make her virtually a prisoner in the home of Mr. Myers. Her baggage was searched, her mail opened; yet at no time was evidence forthcoming even remotely suggesting that she obtained her trance information by normal means.

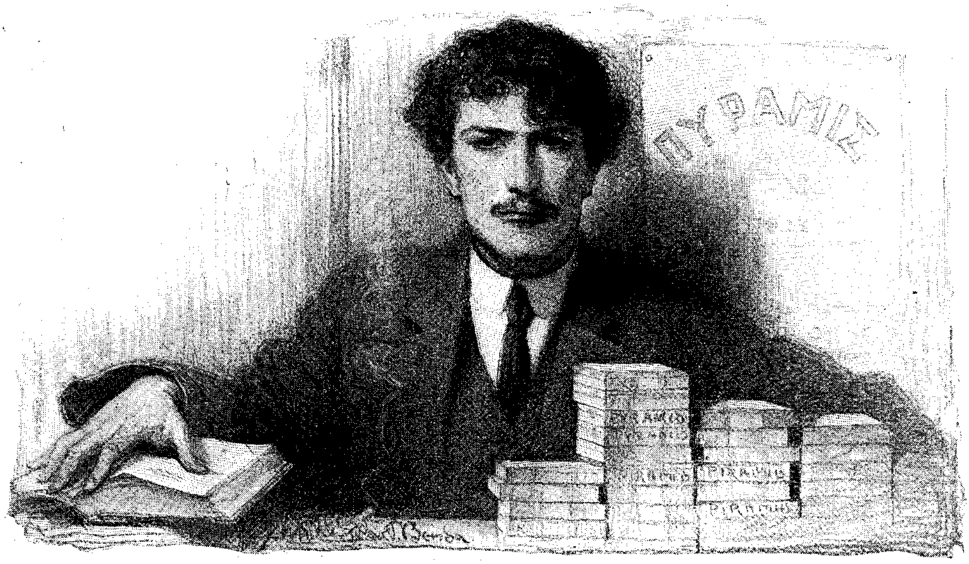
Not all of the séances she gave while in England were equally impressive, but at many of them her utterances seemed to be so strikingly evidential of the identity of the "spirit" purporting to communicate through her that many members of the Society felt that their quest was nearing its end. Others, under the leadership of Mr. Podmore, frankly expressed their conviction that, although no charge of fraud could be successfully laid against her, everything she had communicated of evidential value might be satisfactorily accounted for by the hypothesis of telepathy between living minds. Dr. Hodgson himself, who returned to the United States with Mrs. Piper, was strongly opposed to accepting the spiritistic view, as appeared from a lengthy report issued by him after four years more of unremitting investigation. But almost before this report was in print Mrs. Piper's mediumship entered into a new phase that shook his skepticism to its foundation.

Hitherto she had been "controlled" chiefly by a motley band of "spirits" who gave themselves Latin names, refused to reveal their identity, but claimed to act as intermediaries, so to speak, between the sitters and their deceased acquaintances. Now, following the death of a close friend of Dr. Hodgson's, the Latin "controls" were gradually ousted, and the friend's "spirit" began to take their place, giving such convincing proofs of his identity that Dr. Hodgson felt that the telepathic hypothesis would no longer suffice, and that he really was in communication with the man he had known so well in life. In 1898 he publicly announced his acceptance of the spiritistic hypothesis as the only one adequate to explain all the facts, and two years later a similar announcement was made by another investigator of Mrs. Piper, Professor J. H. Hyslop, who believed that he had been brought into touch through her with dead relatives and friends.

From that day to the present a warm controversy has been in progress, both in England and in the United States, between the advocates of the telepathic and the spiritistic hypothesis as explanatory of the phenomena manifesting through Mrs. Piper and other automatic mediums who have since sprung into prominence—more especially certain Englishwomen, Mrs. Verrall, Mrs. Thompson, Mrs. Forbes, and Mrs. Holland. In this country, however, it must be said, there has been at no time the sustained and earnest interest in psychical research evident in England. The work of organized investigation has practically been left to four men—Professor James, Professor Hyslop, the late Dr. Hodgson, and, more recently, Mr. Hereward Carrington. The American Society for Psychical Research, founded under such auspicious circumstances in 1884, lapsed in 1889 into a mere branch of the English Society, and, although reorganized as an independent body in 1906, its work has since been carried on almost single-handed by Professor Hyslop. Believing firmly, as he does, in the superiority of the spiritistic to the telepathic hypothesis as explanatory of the phenomena in question, it is inevitable that the publications of the American Society should be dominantly spiritistic in tone. And they are so much so that, as a matter of fact, criticism of the spiritistic hypothesis and advocacy of the telepathic comes not so much from members of the Society as from investigators not connected with it.

In the English Society a different situation prevails, though even there it almost seems as though the advocates of telepathy as against spiritism are constantly becoming fewer. Every year witnesses new accessions to the spiritistic camp. The latest "convert" is Sir Oliver Lodge, who, after more than twenty years of investigation, has at last proclaimed his belief that telepathy "is strained to the breaking point" when applied to explain all the phenomena of the Piper-Verrall-Thompson-Forbes-Holland group of mediums. Yet it would be doing the Society a grave injustice to infer that, because individual members affirm that satisfactory proof of spirit communication has been obtained, it, as a Society, indorses this view. On the contrary, from the beginning it has been consistently cautious in its pronouncements. Beyond accepting telepathy as proved—which, by the way, is as yet not the opinion of the scientific world, notwithstanding that the evidence to sustain it has been constantly strengthened with the passage of time—the Society for Psychical Research has reached almost no positive conclusions. And there seems to be no warrant for believing that it will now so far depart from the standards set by its founders as, in the words of an indignant but hasty critic, to "cease to be an organization for scientific inquiry and turn itself into an organization for the propagation of spiritism."

One criticism, however, may in all fairness be made. In concentrating their efforts on the study of the "evidential" phenomena of the automatic mediums, the members of the Society have of recent years unquestionably neglected the important field for investigation opened up by the researches of Myers and Gurney in the subconscious nature of man. This neglect, though, is probably only a passing phase, and one day we shall, it is likely, find them, under the inspiration of some second Myers or second Gurney, probing once more into the mysteries of the "subliminal" with results still more beneficial to mankind, and adding appreciably to the Society's present record of solid and valuable achievement.



Pericles
Of Smyrna and New York

By Walter E. Weyl

With Drawings by Wladyslaw T. Benda

It now appears that the worthy Powhatan was visibly alarmed over the immigration of Captain Smith and his broken-down gentlemen. The English were an unassimilable race, as were later the Germans, the Scotch, the Irish, the Scandinavians, the French Canadians, the Italians, the Poles, the Slovaks, the Jews, the Bohemians, and the others. Yet they have come, and are being more or less imperfectly swallowed and digested.

Now a new nation arrives. Not so very new, for there were Greeks in the world before Columbus or Isabella. Even though the modern Greek be only half a descendant of his putative forefather—even though he be, as his German detractors insist, more Slav than classic Hellene, still he may boast of a measurable antiquity. However that may be, he, the most recent of immigrants, has come, and, if you may trust the word of all the world from the Italian bootblack to the dispossessed candy merchant of any nationality other than Greek, he is superfluous and unwelcome, as ardently unwelcome as were those ancient Greeks who migrated to Troy in a certain wooden horse.

When, forty years ago, a son and heir was born to the Greek bazaar-keeper Michael Antonopulo, of Smyrna, Turkey, it seemed eminently fit and proper to name the child Pericles. Christian names had gone out of fashion. The Greeks are excellent Christians, of a Christianity so ancient that it almost antedates Christ. But forty years ago, as to-day, there was alive in Greece and among the Greeks in Turkey a strong, enthusiastic nationalist spirit, and the Hellenes went back in their dreams beyond the dreary centuries of decline under Rome and Christianity to a glorious antiquity when the world beyond Greece was barbarian. Thus it happened that thirty puling infants of Smyrna were endowed with the name of Pericles, and of these, one, Pericles Antonopulo, was destined, after many adventures, to become one day a dishwasher in the New York Yale Club.

At the age of twenty, Pericles was a

student at the University of Athens. Like his fellow-Greeks from Turkey and other parts of "enslaved Greece," he had come for culture to Athens, the core and center of Hellenism. Here he studied philosophy, history, and the literature of his people. Then, in a village of Thessaly, he taught school. Not the pay attracted him, nor the tenure of office. He received but thirty dollars a month, and even this stipend was dependent on changes in the transient Ministries. But Pericles had a dream of a future Greek Empire, re-established upon the ruins of Turkey, and to realize this dream through preaching the enthusiastic university man was willing to devote himself to a Thessalian village school.

Otherwise it was dull work, this weary round of lessons to uninspired, game-loving youngsters. Even of the "dream" they tired. In vain did Pericles declaim on the splendid heritage of modern Greece. He pictured the new Greece sweeping over Epirus, Macedonia, and Thrace, embracing Asia Minor, absorbing Crete and the Ægean Islands, finding anew its old capital in the sunlit city of Constantine. The millions of "enslaved Greece" would rise at the call of their brothers, the Turks would vanish from the earth, and the brutal Bulgarians and their barbarous coadjutors, the Russians, would be shattered by the prowess of Thermopylæ and Marathon. The golden age of Athens would return. Greece, with its warriors, statesmen, poets, dramatists, sculptors, and philosophers—Greece, the epitome of all that was noble in mankind, would rise afresh after its sleep of two millenniums. The world's history would end, as it had begun, with Greece.

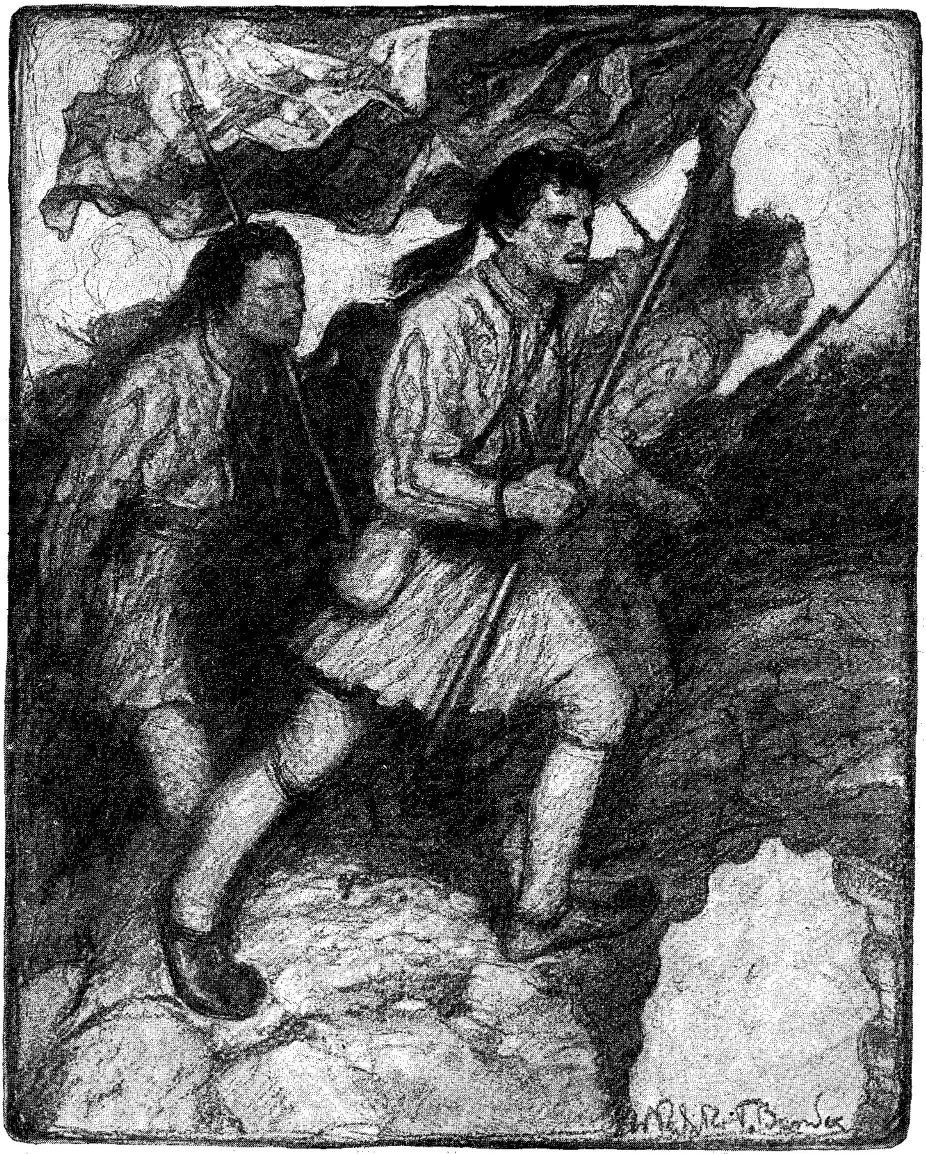
All day long Pericles spoke of the new Greek Empire; all night long he dreamed of the new Greek Empire. For the sake of the new Greek Empire he did not marry; he would not give hostages, when his country might at any moment call him. Nightly, before going to bed, Pericles said to his landlord, "I shall sleep lightly to-night; to-morrow there may be war."

When, finally, in 1897, the war broke out, Pericles cried with joy. At last the Mussulman was doomed; victorious Greece would sweep over Turkey as sweeps the resistless sea at high tide over the shore. In a few months his disillusionment was complete. The ill-disciplined, ill-conditioned, outgeneraled Greeks were no match for the Turk. "We have defeated ourselves," cried Pericles, as again and again he heard the order to retreat.

When you have waited two thousand years for the fulfillment of an ideal, you are willing to wait a little longer. Pericles saw that if Greece were ever to come again into her own, she must build anew, preserve her traditions, clean up her politics, and, above all, get rich. Money today was what the bravery of Leonidas, the strategy of Miltiades, and the statesmanship of Pericles were two thousand years ago.

Thus it happened that Pericles Antonopulo, once of Smyrna, began to think of America as the treasure-house of Greece. He had heard of Greeks who in Chicago, Brooklyn, Providence, Worcester, in hundreds of places unknown to classical geography, had acquired money as naturally and easily as the bee gathers honey. "What a dull peasant, an unlettered shepherd, or a rude baker's apprentice could do; what was easy for slow Achilles or foolish Agamemnon, could hardly tax the courage of a scholar, a gentleman, and a patriot." So Pericles sailed from Piræus, and on a certain September day landed on the pier in New York.

Demetrius, a former pupil, met him. Demetrius was not a scholar nor a gentleman, but a peasant and a son of fifty generations of peasants. Yet Demetrius had succeeded. He had begun at the bottom—he had blacked shoes. Then, in rapid succession, he had been fruit peddler, fruit push-cart man, fruiterer, and fruit importer. Now, in his thirty-dollar American suit, he seemed half proud and half ashamed of his educated friend, whom he associated alternately with the University of Athens and the steerage deck of the Friedrich der Grosse. As for Pericles, there was at first a slight condescension in his attitude towards his one-time pupil, but as he noted the superior air which the gilded and crassly Americanized Demetrius affected towards all the gibbering hackmen and runners, a change came



"WHEN, FINALLY, IN 1897, THE WAR BROKE OUT, PERICLES CRIED WITH JOY"

over the immigrant's idea of the universe, and he followed Demetrius in abashed silence.

"You may as well go back," vouchsafed the editor of the "Hellene," when Pericles, after a month's fruitless search for work, came to him for advice. "America is no land for the intelligent. It asks for muscle; it cares naught for the immortal spirit. If you can sell candy or dig ditches, stay; but if you are a scholar—" A Hellenic shrug ended the sentence.

Pericles pondered. Why not? Were not all men alike? Here in the land of the barbarian he might as well put any pride of self in his empty pocket. That afternoon he became dishwasher in the Yale Club and began his struggle for a foothold.

The Yale Club of New York is a delectable place, where the service is so unobtrusive that the pleasant, well-fed clubmen believe that comfort is a thing spontaneous. They talk well in the Yale

Club, and now and again a visitor may listen to interesting conversation.

But in the days of Pericles the real conversation of the Yale Club was in the pantry. Upstairs one discussed the Harvard game; below stairs, the undying glories of Hellenism. From the smoking-room armchairs the sprawling clubmen descanted on Le Gallienne and Kipling; in the pantry, amid the splash of hot water, the dishwashers shouted their appreciation of Homer and Sophocles. To a man the servants were Greeks, and the latest of these, Pericles of Smyrna, had transplanted his school from the village of Thessaly to the pantry of the Yale Club.

Environment, however, is as potent a factor in molding thoughts as are inheritance and tradition, and gradually, almost imperceptibly, Pericles projected his point of view a few thousand years forward. He was still in spirit a citizen of ancient Athens, but he began to be mildly interested in the larger American commonwealth. "One republic should help another," he soliloquized, and so, from the vantage-ground of the pantry, he began to survey the American experiment, and to study how the material prosperity of the United States might count for the future of Greece.

The Greeks, he soon discovered, were gaining a place in the vast wilderness of American industrial life. The Greeks in the pantry, the Greeks in the kitchen, the silent Greek stewards, were all saving money and learning English. Pericles learned *his* English by memorizing a dozen cantos of "Paradise Lost," and thereafter even his most intimate talk was full of seventeenth-century archaisms. But the other Greeks in the establishment slowly acquired a more useful though less dignified English, and at least learned enough words to make their way from one Greek establishment to another.

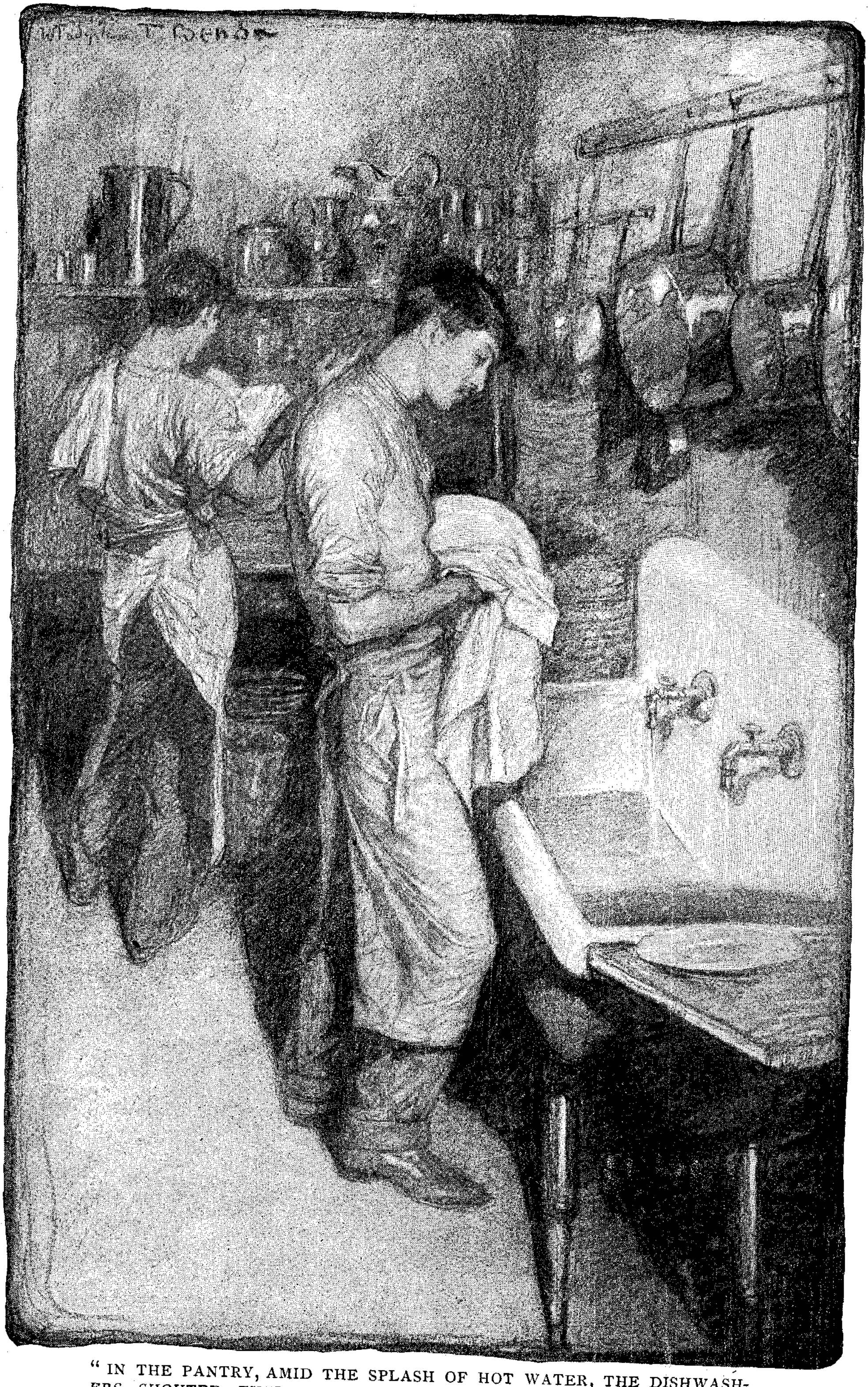
At the end of fifteen months Pericles had saved $150 out of a total of $240 received. With this sum he was persuaded to open a little cigarette establishment in the cellar of a down-town tenement. "There isn't a good Turkish cigarette in all America," decided Alcibiades, and Alcibiades knew, for he smoked all day.

It was a humble counselor who had directed the attention of Pericles to the infinite possibilities of the cigarette and tobacco business. Alcibiades was an oyster vender. He kept a very small stand, inclosed in glass, from which he sold clams and oysters on the half-shell and a varied assortment of dubious sandwiches. Above his wares hung a card with the motto "In God we trust," and to no one else did Alcibiades extend credit.

A native American stopping to chat with Alcibiades was always informed in a lapidated English that the oyster vender was the first of all the Greeks to arrive in America. "I come here," he would say, "thirty years past as little baby child. I work in Lowell. I save thousand dollars. My do-nothing brothers come to New York. I go into restaurant business with them. I lose my money. I marry. That also bad. I like Lowell—the Athens of America. I like not New York, where no one speaks a swell English." But to Pericles the street merchant admitted that he had been in America only six years, and was going back as soon as the oyster business permitted him to retire. In scholastic Greek and Miltonian English Pericles praised this intended repatriation, while the oyster vender urged the graduate of the Athenian University to embark upon the cigarette business.

No one ever knew how it happened, Pericles least of all. Yearly, hundreds of persons become tobacconists, only to emerge from the business poorer than they entered it. The stock of the American Tobacco Company did not fall when Pericles issued his little cards announcing in Greek that the best and cheapest cigarettes in America were for sale at his emporium. Nor did Goliath tremble when he saw David approach.

During the first few weeks Pericles sold fewer cigarettes than he smoked. The following month business was still worse. Then the stroke of fortune came. A member of the Yale Club stumbled miraculously on the cellar shop, and Pericles, remembering the man but not his name, addressed him as "Mr. Yale." In another week the Yale Club bought its cigarettes from Pericles Antonopulo, and by the end of the year Demetrius, the fruiterer, had invested ten thousand dollars in the business and begun an active canvass for the "Pyramid," the best and cheapest Egyptian cigarette in the world.



"IN THE PANTRY, AMID THE SPLASH OF HOT WATER, THE DISHWASHERS SHOUTED THEIR APPRECIATION OF HOMER AND SOPHOCLES"

The "Pyramid" took, and in a short time the new firm was in the proud position of refusing an offer of purchase from the American Tobacco Company.

To-day Demetrius is a very wealthy man, and even Pericles counts his dollars in the hundreds of thousands. His wife is the daughter of a retired Greek merchant of Alexandria, Egypt, and his six-year-old boy is a pupil in a private school on Central Park West. Pericles still has dreams of New Greece, though they are now "sicklied o'er by the pale cast of thought;" he still talks in Miltonian English of the glories of ancient Hellas, and he is always a generous contributor when money is sent to the home country to repair a church, construct a road, or purchase a ship of war. He is all that a son of Greece should be, and yet—he is an American citizen and an American voter, and he is beginning to devote less thought to the Greeks of the Old World and more to the Greeks of the New.

These Greeks of the New World are still but a small number, not over one hundred and fifty thousand, but they may some day become more numerous than the Greeks of Greece. The Hellene has always loved his native country—and always left it. In the olden days Greeks were to be found in Italy, France, Spain, northern Africa, Asia Minor, on all the shores washed by the waters of the Mediterranean. Even to-day there are Greeks in all the world, and more Hellenes in the sprawling, crumbling Ottoman Empire, with its shadowy dependencies in Europe and Asia, than in Greece itself. And every year from the six million Greeks of Greece and Turkey a larger contingent sets sail for America.

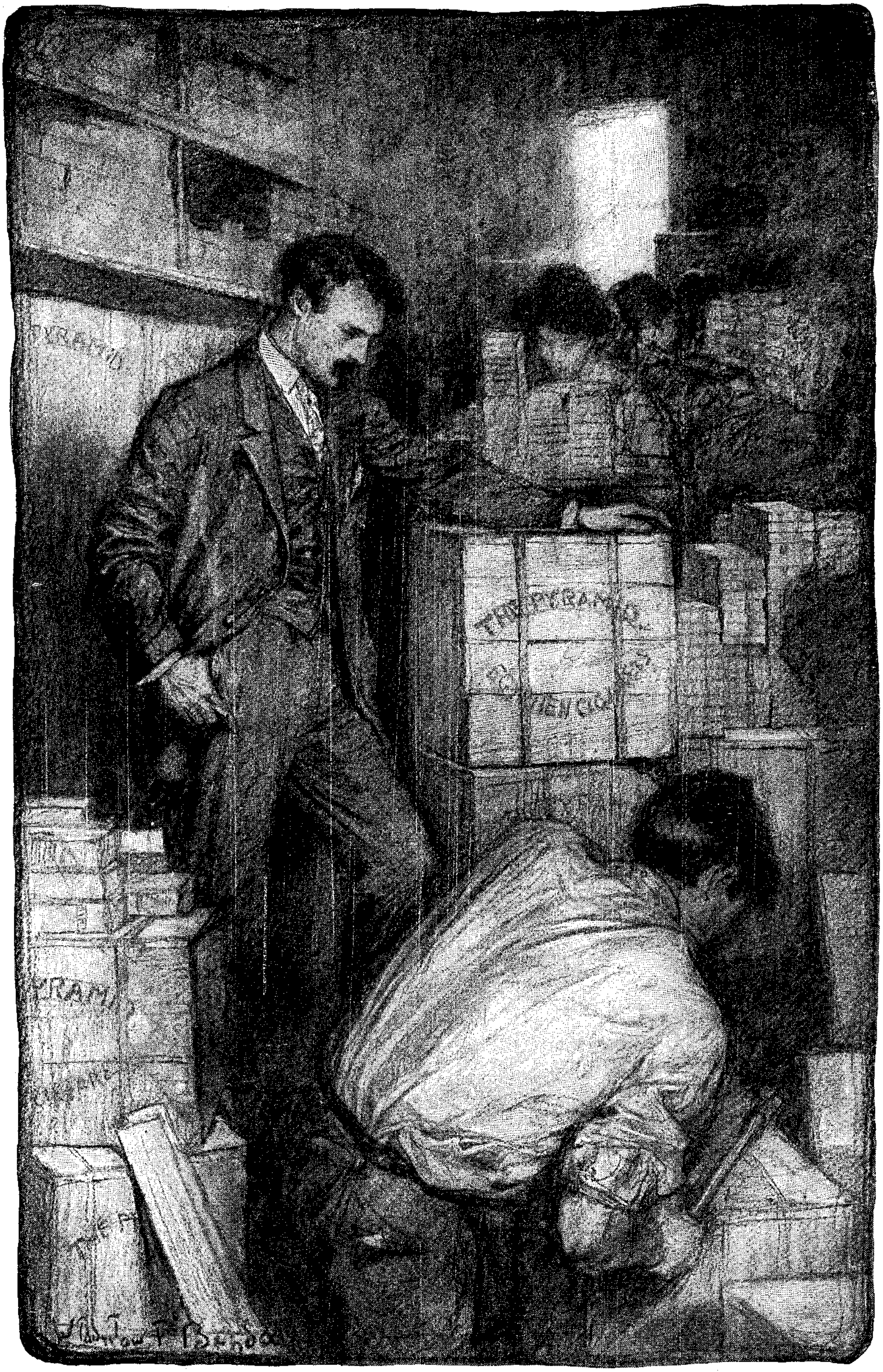
At first the migration was insignificant. In 1868 only eight Greeks came; during the next five years those who arrived might have all been housed in one tenement; until 1900 no year brought as many as three thousand. But in the year 1907 no less than 46,000 Greeks came to America; in other words, far more than the total number who arrived during the four centuries from 1492 to 1892. The immigration, though it has been temporarily stayed by the commercial depression, is bound to grow in the future to even greater proportions.

If one could live without bread, if one could rise satisfied from a feast of mountains and sea and rippling rivers and clear skies and national pride and historic traditions, our immigration from the beautiful land of Greece would be small. No one would exchange the Parthenon and Larissa and Corfu and the crags of Thessaly for Roosevelt Street and a fruit-stand, if there weren't money in it. There is. The Greek comes to the New World because Greece is poor and America is rich.

There is a certain law to be observed in all poverty migrations, and that is, men first. It is the able-bodied who go forward in the foray for food, and the wife and children and the helpless old people who stay at home until the foothold is gained. The example of the Greeks, our newest immigrants, is in point. In 1907 ninety-six out of every hundred immigrants from Greece were males and only four were females; less than two were under fourteen years of age, and none was over forty-five. In other words, nineteen-twentieths of all our Greek immigrants were able-bodied, adult males in the best years of their working life.

It is fortunate for the Greeks that their strongest come first. It is a hard fight that meets them. In their struggle for the control of the shoe-blacking trade they must compete with the indefatigable Italian. In the push-cart business they again meet the Italian, and a far more formidable competitor, the Jew. In whatever occupation, from running an elevator to keeping a candy-stand, the Greek meets the competition of men as determined, as industrious, as vigorous as himself.

All immigrants are at a temporary disadvantage, but certain disabilities affect the Greek more fundamentally than his competitors. Above all, the language. The majority of our Greek immigrants are peasants and shepherds, unused to the ways of even the remote Greek towns, and a third are unable to read or write their own language. To even the literates the English language is likely to remain a closed book. The characters are different, and the words, which an ignorant Italian might interpret through the common Latin, are "Greek" to the Greek. The sign "Keep off the Grass" means no more to an immigrant from Attica, Arcadia, or


PYRAMID
THE PYRAMID
PYRAMID

"THE 'PYRAMID' TOOK, AND IN A SHORT TIME THE NEW FIRM WAS IN THE PROUD POSITION OF REFUSING AN OFFER OF PURCHASE FROM THE AMERICAN TOBACCO COMPANY"

Zanthe than does a line from Homer to a district messenger boy.

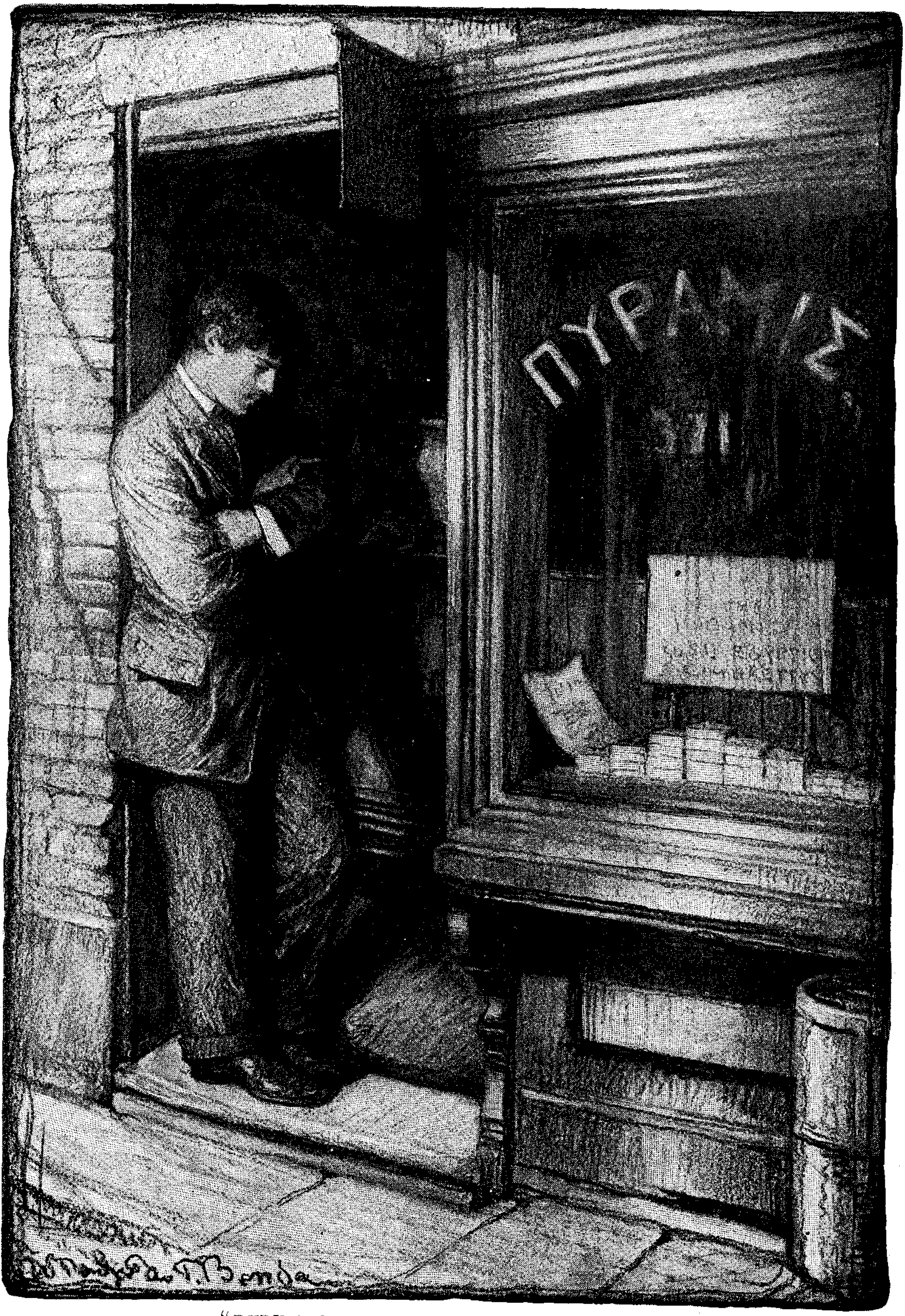
A few weeks ago a Greek was arrested for peddling without a license. Such at least is the record of the court. If you were to examine the Greek upon the occurrence, his recollection might be somewhat as follows: "Policeman taps me on the shoulder and makes signs to come with him. I go, wheeling my push-cart through streets I have never seen before. We come to a building and the policeman makes me go in with him. There is a high desk and some men sit in front and an old man on a high seat sits behind. The policeman talks to the old man behind the desk, who looks at me over his spectacles and answers the policeman. The policeman talks again, and the old man says a few words. Then the policeman speaks to me, and when I do not understand, he shakes me and shouts in my ear. He holds up two fingers and puts his other hand in his pocket and draws it out again. I take two dollars out of my pocket and hand them to the policeman. After that he points to the door, and I go downstairs and find my push-cart with the fruit on it, though some of the oranges are gone. Then I go back to my business and sell harder all the afternoon to gain back the two dollars that I have paid to the policeman and the man behind the desk."

There are many Greeks who are peddling without a license, or are violating provisions of the Corporation Law or the Sanitary Law, who have never even heard of such laws and do not know that they exist. There is rarely any interpreter at hand to explain so insignificant a procedure as the imposition of a fine, and as for the law, though ignorance is no excuse, there is no attempt to inform aliens of its provisions. In the little towns of Hermopolis or Pyrgos you can throw things on the sidewalk; in the big cities of Chicago and Boston you cannot. Of all the Greeks summoned before the courts, five-sixths have been guilty of nothing beyond the violation of ordinances of which they have never had an opportunity to know.

You can't stop a nation's gaining its foothold by fining or throwing into jail, though you may halt its progress. And despite his ignorance of the law and his ignorance of the language the Greek gets along. Gradually he begins to learn something about the pitfalls in these great cities of ours. He congregates in the Greek quarters of New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, or St. Louis, in the Athenian grocery store, in the Hellene barber shop, in the Levantine restaurant, or in the little cafés where, through dense clouds of smoke, you can see Greeks of all conditions seated behind their black coffee and Oriental pipes discussing the brigands of Bulgaria, the woes of Macedonia, and the latest news of the Greek colony. In their two New York dailies the Greco-Americans read not only of the doings of their motherland, not only well-digested accounts of the progress of the age, but all the news, from the election of a President to the pettiest details of police court proceedings.

And gradually the Greek in America learns. When he learns, he is a formidable competitor. He goes out on the street with flowers or candies or fruit, knowing not even the name of the article he sells, but knowing the words "nickel" and dime and quarter, and the significance of each. Gradually he learns other words. You cannot help learning words if you stand twelve hours on a thronged street and have ears and mind. And gradually he learns to know the psychology of the free-handed American; he learns to distinguish the "sport" who will pay fifty cents for a fifteen-cent bunch of moribund violets from the cautious purchaser who wants his money's worth even from a Greek peddler. The Greek, who for thousands of years has haggled in all the lands upon which the sun sets, even learns in America when not to haggle.

It is difficult to meet this silent, insistent, overpowering competition of the hard-working, hard-saving, canny, subtle, pleasing Greek, anxious to gain his foothold. The Greeks entered the retail food business as the camel entered the Arab's tent, first nose, then head, then camel. To-day, in all our big cities they are the manufacturers and venders of cheap candies, of which it might be said that glucose by any other name would taste as sweet. They have almost monopolized the retail fruit business and flower industry, and the



"DURING THE FIRST FEW WEEKS PERICLES SOLD FEWER CIGARETTES THAN HE SMOKED"

Greek restaurant, once a novelty, has now become an established institution. There are already thousands of these little restaurants in our Northern American cities.

Not all the Greeks can go into retail trade, for which they are so pre-eminently fitted, but there are manual positions which may serve as stepping-stones for a petty commercial career. One may gain enough nickels at shoe-shining or pennies at paper-selling to permit one to dream of a push-cart or a fruit-stand. One may go out with the laborers and earn a dollar and a half a day at digging ditches, or run an elevator for ten hours a day and go to night school for two, emerging after a few years as a candidate for any industrial position in America. You may open a barber shop and shave your flourishing fellow-countrymen, or start another of the infinite number of little Greek grocery stores, where all goods are sold at all prices and one clerk knows not what the other clerk charges. Or, finally, you may become a steamship agent and notary public, and sell exchange and transmit money, and thrive so long as deposits come to you, and fail only when the money is asked for again. There are always ways and means in good times of earning what the Greek immigrant calls a living in America.

There are avenues to even higher success. The first Greeks who came were men of the soil; the new Greeks who are arriving are, in some cases, professional men. The Greek doctor leaves Athens or Patras for New York or Chicago, and, even without knowing English, gives advice to the Greeks. The Greek pharmacist settles in a foreign neighborhood, and, though he does not like the Italians—were not Greeks and Romans ever enemies?—he ministers to them with as glad a heart as to the sons of Hellas. Other professional men from Athens make a modest career in the great cities of the New World.

But a cultured Greek, like a cultured immigrant from any nationality, is at no advantage in the struggle for a foothold. If, like Pericles of Smyrna, he is willing to start as a dishwasher, he may by dint of work succeed, or by force of unusual fortune gain a glittering success. But, however cultivated he may be, however gifted in rhetoric, however exact in his use of the "written" Greek, he is doomed to disappointment and failure without the cruder virtues of the peasant. America asks of its immigrants not fineness but strength.

"You Americans," said the editor of a Greco-American journal, "are giving to the Greeks great material capital; it is our business and our privilege to give them moral capital; there is danger in your country, and temptation. The Greek is impulsive, ardent—how shall I say?—a child. He arrives with ideals of a Republic like the Athenian Republic of old. He is thrilled because of the speeches which he does not hear, and he believes that in Congress each is a Demosthenes; he sees your newspapers, which he cannot read, and he thinks that among those who write are a Plato and an Aristotle and a Xenophon. He hears of your courts of justice, and believes that Aristides the Just lives in America. Then he sees America, not as it is, but as it turns its uglier side to the immigrant. So he loses hope, loses faith in the Republic that was to him like the Republic of old.

"You are right," went on the editor. "Athens, as you say, was evil too; in those days also there were ward heelers and grafters. But what we must preserve in the heart of the Greek is not the real Athens, but the belief in an Athens that is good and just and wise, whether that Athens come to life in Greece or in America or only in the souls of men. It is this spirit that we must keep alive in our people. They send home money, and so they help the noble country that gave them birth. But it is not enough to send dollars; they must give to their old land the best thought and the best life of the new. Only so can they pay to their mother country the moral debt which is tenfold greater than the debt of things."

The fourth article in this series, "Jan, the Polish Miner," will appear in the April Magazine Number of The Outlook

The Japanese Ambassador

By William Elliot Griffis

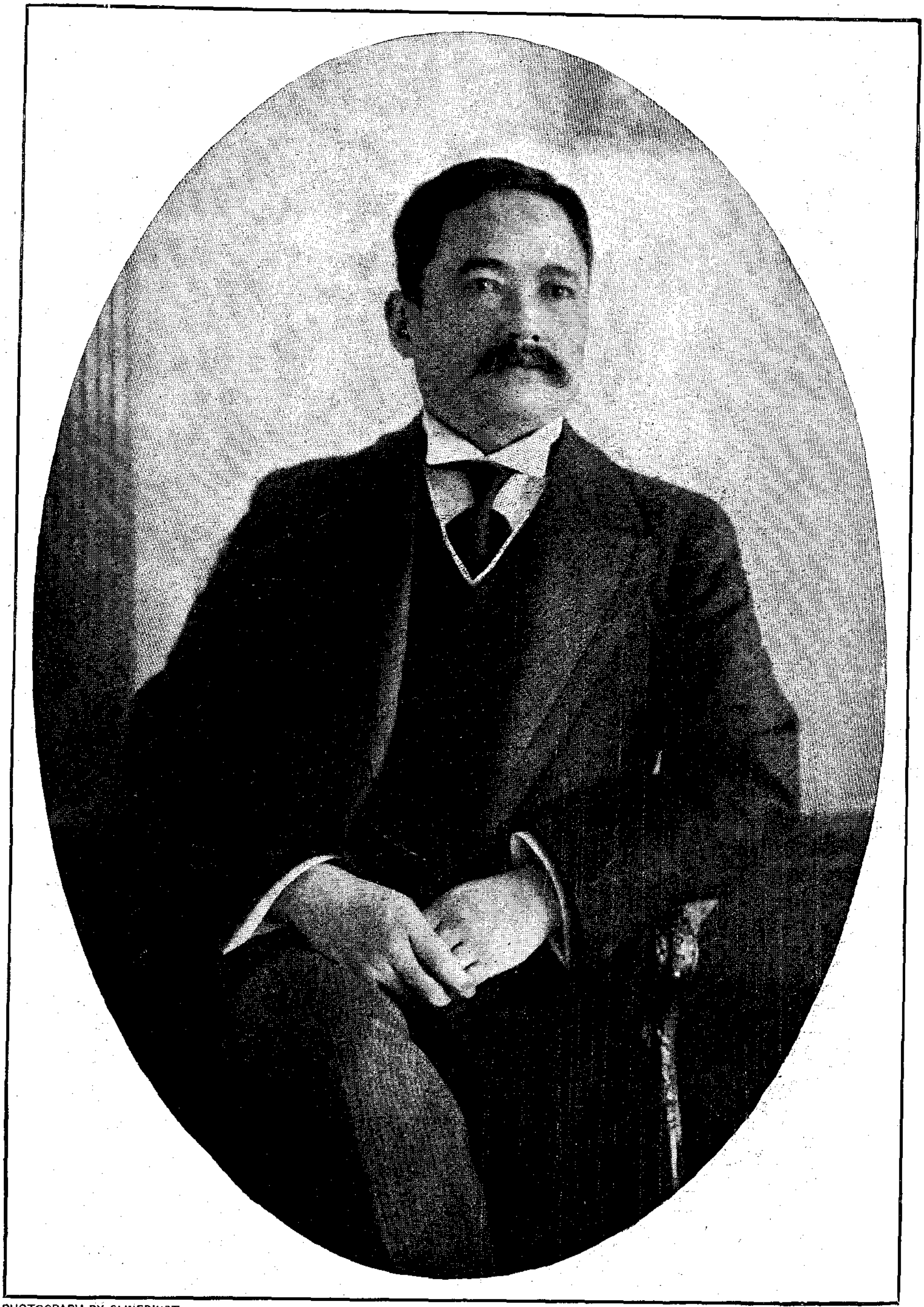
THE exploitation of the Chinese Empire is the prize set before modern diplomacy. Americans are apt to suppose that the chief concern in Tokyo is about the United States and the attitude of our Government toward Oriental "exclusion." Yet the Japanese statesmen and people give more thought to the Chinese than to us. The Chino-Japanese War was provoked by ancient China's *Whang-ti*, or pretension to world sovereignty. Under this dogma, Korea was openly claimed as a vassal and Japan was looked upon as a rebel that had broken from restraint. Even to-day there is no greater menace to Japan's safety and prosperity than an unreformed and mediæval China. So long as one-fourth of the world's population is dominated by ideals which, expressed in a foreign policy, would reduce not only Japan but all the surrounding nations to vassalage, there is danger. China in A.D. 1910 is very much in the condition of those churches which, while professing the "simple Gospel" and frank acceptance of modern science, still cling in their printed and unrepealed formulas to mediæval notions and symbols.

With such a view of the situation, we can understand and gladly welcome the new Ambassador, Baron Yasuwa Uchida. New measures require new men. Dr. Uchida, graduate of the Imperial University, is neither of the epoch of 1868, nor of "the fifty-five creators" of modern Japan, nor of the next generation, born during the thirty years' period of internal stress and struggle with foreign nations to secure recognition of equality before the world. He is a distinct product of modern education and diplomacy in the new Japan. Though one of the youngest of men to be appointed Ambassador, he is among the oldest in the training and experience needed to fit him for the special task before him. So far from the alleged newspaper charge that he comes as the exponent of a more radical and Jingo policy of the military party of Japan, his whole career reflects the more profound truth that Japan, a loyal pupil of the Anglo-Saxon nations, is ready to go to any honorable length in maintaining American friendship.

Dr. Uchida was born in 1865, at Kumamoto. Out of this feudal capital of Higo came not only Kato Kiyomasa of 1592, the invader of Korea and the relentless persecutor of the Catholic Christians, but also Yokoi Heishiro of 1868, who sent the first Japanese students to America. Through Yokoi's personal statesmanship, also, conscience and Christianity were made free in Japan and one million outcasts were lifted up to citizenship. These three lines of activity were worthy of Peter the Great, William the Silent, and Abraham Lincoln.

Going first to Kyoto and studying in the Doshisha and later at a private school in Kumamoto, where his classmates were two famous men of to-day, the chief secretary of the House of Peers and the head of the metropolitan police force, Uchida went to Tokyo and was graduated from the Imperial University. Through the influence of Count Inouye, Prince Ito's lifelong friend, he was appointed, soon after his graduation, to the Foreign Office. He came directly and was for many years under the direct influence of that superb character, Christian gentleman, scholar, and patriot, Count Mutsu; and when, in 1888, the latter was Minister in Washington, Uchida came with him as his secretary. Afterwards in Japan (1890–92), when Mutsu was Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, Dr. Uchida served his friend most loyally as private secretary. He then went to be Secretary of Legation at London, taking active part in the negotiations which resulted in the abolition of extra-territoriality and the alliance of Japan and Great Britain.

While in London (1893–95) the Chino-Japanese War broke out. Long before this, when men in power in Toyko were looking for the one best competent to represent them in Peking—a post requiring infinite tact and patience—they asked of Mutsu who was fit and available. Mutsu at once named Uchida, already famous for his powers as a good thinker, as a



PHOTOGRAPH BY CLINEDINST

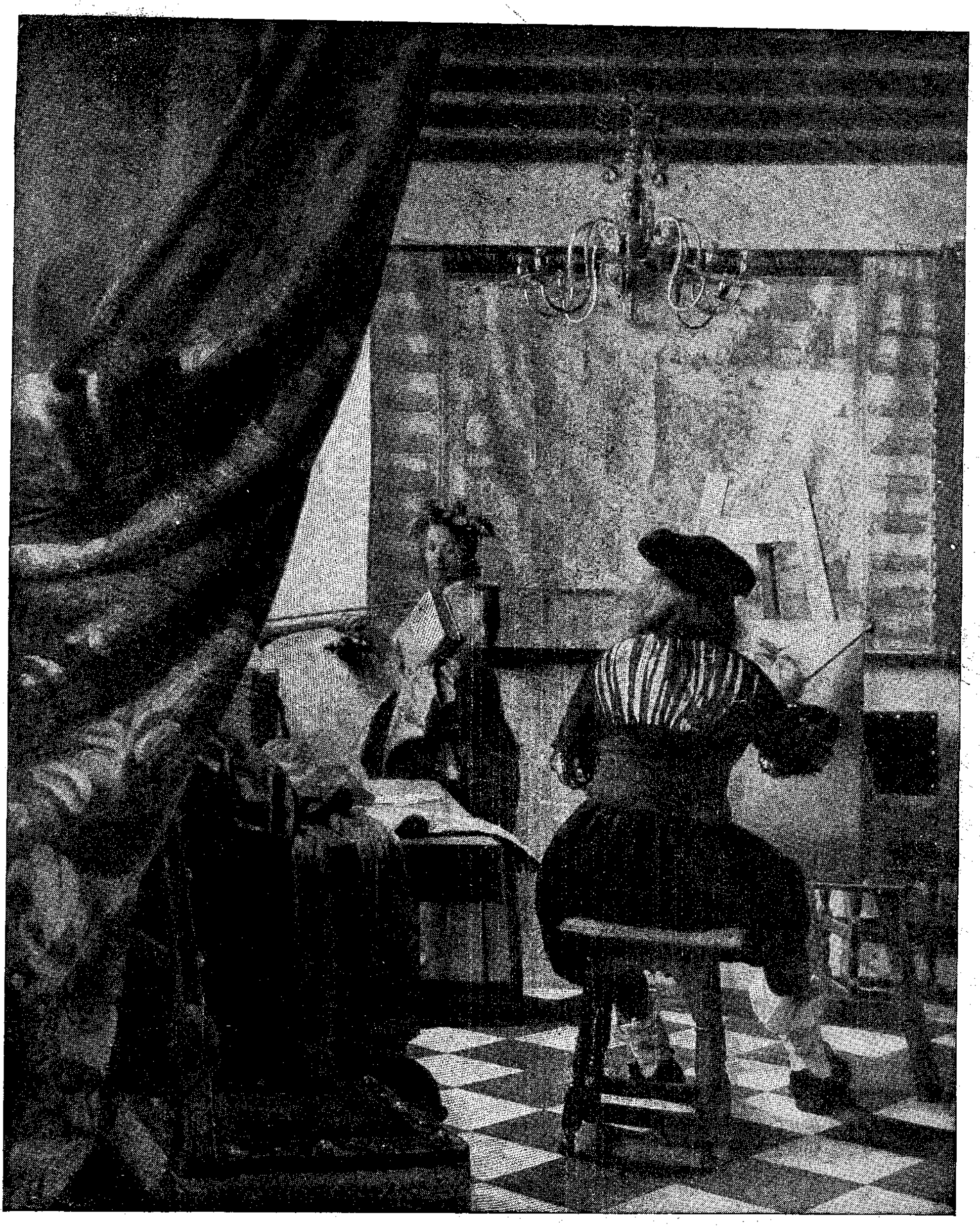
BARON YASUWA UCHIDA
The New Japanese Ambassador to the United States

master of mathematics and algebra, and as a conqueror of details and principles. As soon as military operations were over Uchida was sent to represent his Government in Peking (1895–97). For his service abroad he received the decoration of the Order of the Rising Sun and extra pecuniary reward. The Emperor appointed him Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs in October, 1900. He took a conspicuous part in the diplomatic negotiations relative to the Boxer uprising, and in September, 1901, replaced at Peking, as Minister, Count Komura, who was called to Tokyo. While in Peking the Russian war broke out, on the conclusion of which he assisted Komura in adjusting matters with China after the Portsmouth Treaty, remaining at Peking until June, 1906. He was appointed in February, 1907, Japanese Ambassador to Austria, and created Baron in November of the same year. Except, then, the two years when he was confidential secretary of the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, he has spent his adult lifetime in the work of diplomacy, attaining his high rank by untiring devotion to his work.

During the whole of his political career Uchida has been closely associated with those men of peaceful inclinations and the highest constructive civic abilities, Ito, Inouye, and Mutsu, having little or nothing to do with the military party or the statesmen who were supposed to represent them. Not least among the influences that have shaped his personality is his wife, the Baroness Uchida, formerly Miss Dogura, of Yamato, educated in this country and a graduate of Bryn Mawr.

PHOTOGRAPH BY CLINEDINST

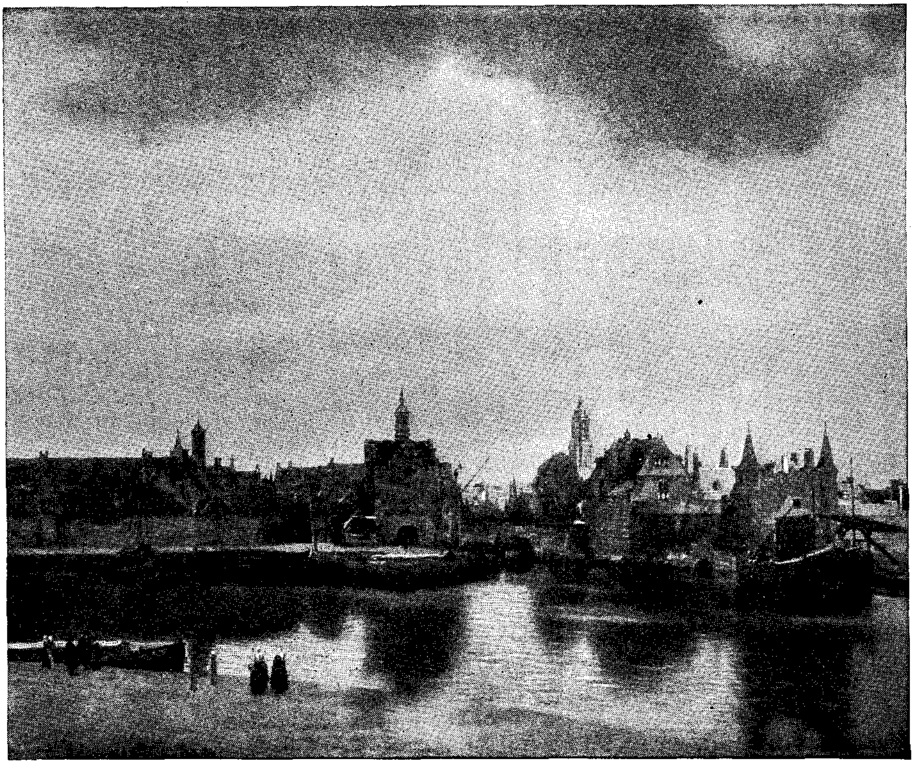
BARONESS UCHIDA



THE ARTIST

BY JAN VERMEER

The only known picture in which Vermeer
is supposed to have painted his own portrait



A VIEW OF DELFT, BY JAN VERMEER

Vermeer of Delft

By Edward Verrall Lucas

NOT long ago the papers contained a little paragraph stating that Heer Bredius, the Curator of the Mauritshuis Gallery at The Hague, had just returned from a journey of exploration in Russia, bringing back with him over a hundred valuable pictures of the Dutch school which he had discovered there in country and city mansions and even in farm-houses; for the Russian collectors of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, as is well known, greatly esteemed and desired (as who must not?) Dutch art. That was all that the paragraph said, and, since that was all, we may feel quite sure that among those hundred and more pictures there was nothing from the divinely gifted hand of Jan Vermeer of Delft; because the discovery of a new picture by Jan Vermeer of Delft would be something not merely for mention in a paragraph, but among the special news—something with which to agitate the cables of the world.

Can you conceive of a more delightful existence than that of Heer Bredius—to be when at home the conservator of such masterpieces as hang in the Mauritshuis, on the banks of the Vyver, in the beautiful and bland Dutch capital (some of which are his own property and only lent to the gallery), and, when in mind to travel, to leave The Hague with a roving commission to hunt for and acquire new treasures? I can't. And that is why, when I am asked who I would choose to be were I not myself, I say, Heer Bredius, of the Mauritshuis.

And yet, if I had Mr. Pierpont Morgan's wealth, I would—but let us consider first the life and work of Jan Vermeer of Delft.

Jan Vermeer, or van der Meer, was born

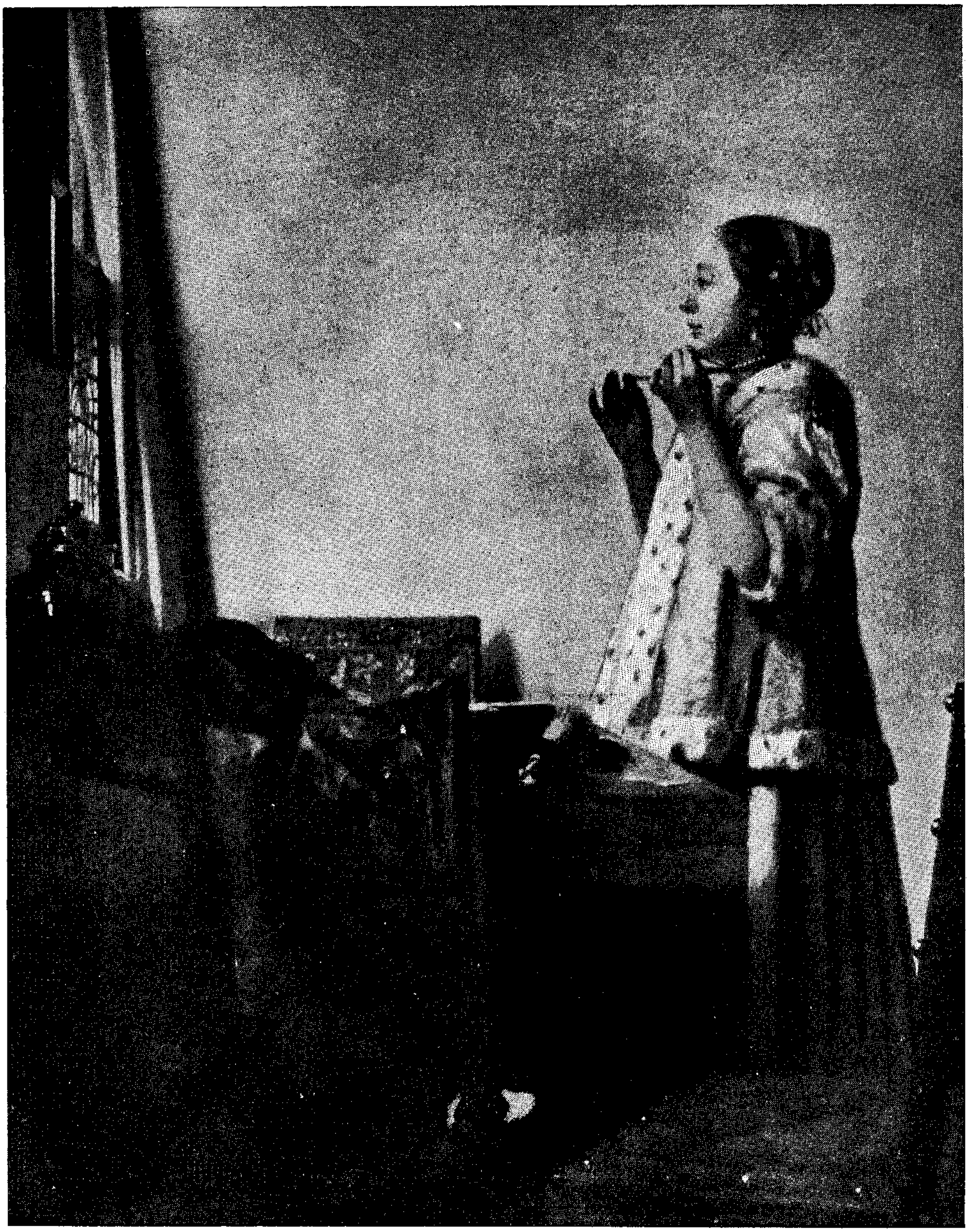
in Delft and baptized there on October 31, 1632. His father was Reymer Janszoon Vermeer, and his mother Dingnums Balthasars. In 1653 he married, also in Delft, Catherina Bolnes, or Bolenes. How many children they had I do not know, but eight survived him. It is generally believed that Karel Fabritius, himself a pupil of Rembrandt and a painter of extraordinary distinction, was Vermeer's instructor; but the period of tuition must have been very short, for Fabritius became a member of the Delft Guild in 1652, before which he might not teach, and he was dead in 1654, killed by a powder explosion.

Dr. Hofstede de Groote, the author of a magnificent monograph on Vermeer and Fabritius, published in 1907–8, conjectures Vermeer to have had an Italian master as well as a Dutch, and it is easy to believe. The "Diana and her Nymphs" at The Hague, and the "Christ in the House of Martha and Mary" (which I have seen only in reproduction) both have Italian characteristics.

The facts about Vermeer are singularly few, considering the high opinion in which he was held by contemporaries. Almost the only intimate thing told of him is the story of his unpaid bread bill, as recounted by de Monconys, the French traveler. De Monconys visited him in 1663 and wanted to buy a picture, but none could be found in the artist's house. Vermeer's baker, however, consented to sell one which was hanging on his wall, and for which he had allowed 300 gulden. After Vermeer's death, it is told, the baker's debt of 3,176 florins was liquidated by two pictures. Since Vermeer's wife is known to have had rich relations and to have come into money from time to time, we may guess this gigantic account to have been the result rather of bad management than of poverty; for of all the painters of the world none less suggests necessity than Jan Vermeer of Delft; on the contrary, his work carries with it the idea of aristocracy and prosperity, certainly a fastidiousness rarely associated with the struggle for existence. Moreover, we are told that his prices, even when he was alive, were higher than those of any painters save Gerard Dou, and such a guild as that of Delft would not be likely to elect a starving man to the post of chief four several times. No, if Vermeer owed money to his baker, it was because he was easy-going, placid, above such trifles, as other artists have been before and since; indeed, occasionally still are, I am told. You can see that Vermeer was placid; the fact shines in every picture. He was placid, and he liked others to be placid too. His wife was placid, his daughters (if, as I conjecture, certain of his models were his daughters) were placid, his sitters were placid. His one landscape shows that he wanted nature to be placid; his one street scene has the dove brooding upon it. When we put in one balance the debt for bread, and in the other the very slender output of the famous artist, to whom collectors came even from distant France with heavy purses, we are face to face with a difficulty; because even placid men, when they become chiefs of guilds, do not much care for continual reminders that they owe money, and in such a small town as Delft Vermeer and his baker would have had some difficulty in not often meeting. Moreover, what of the butcher? And the vintner? The inference, therefore—especially when it is remembered that the baker occasionally agreed to be paid in kind and hang we know not which of the masterpieces on his wall—the inference, therefore, is that Vermeer painted, was forced by necessity to paint, many pictures in excess of the thirty that are at the present moment identifiable. Of this more later; but I want to bring out the point here, since it is of the highest importance in understanding his work.

When I add that Vermeer died in December, 1675, at the early age of forty-three, and that his executor was Antony van Leeuwenhoek, the inventor of the microscope (and probably his sitter in several pictures), I have said all that is known for certain of his personal life and career.

On a recent journey on the track of Vermeer we began at Vienna; and there was a certain propriety in doing so, for in the Vienna Vermeer the artist is supposed to have painted himself—the only known picture in which he did so, and to begin with a concept of him was interesting and proper. The "Maler," as it is



VERMEER'S "THE PEARL NECKLACE"

A radiant picture in Vermeer's most delightful style

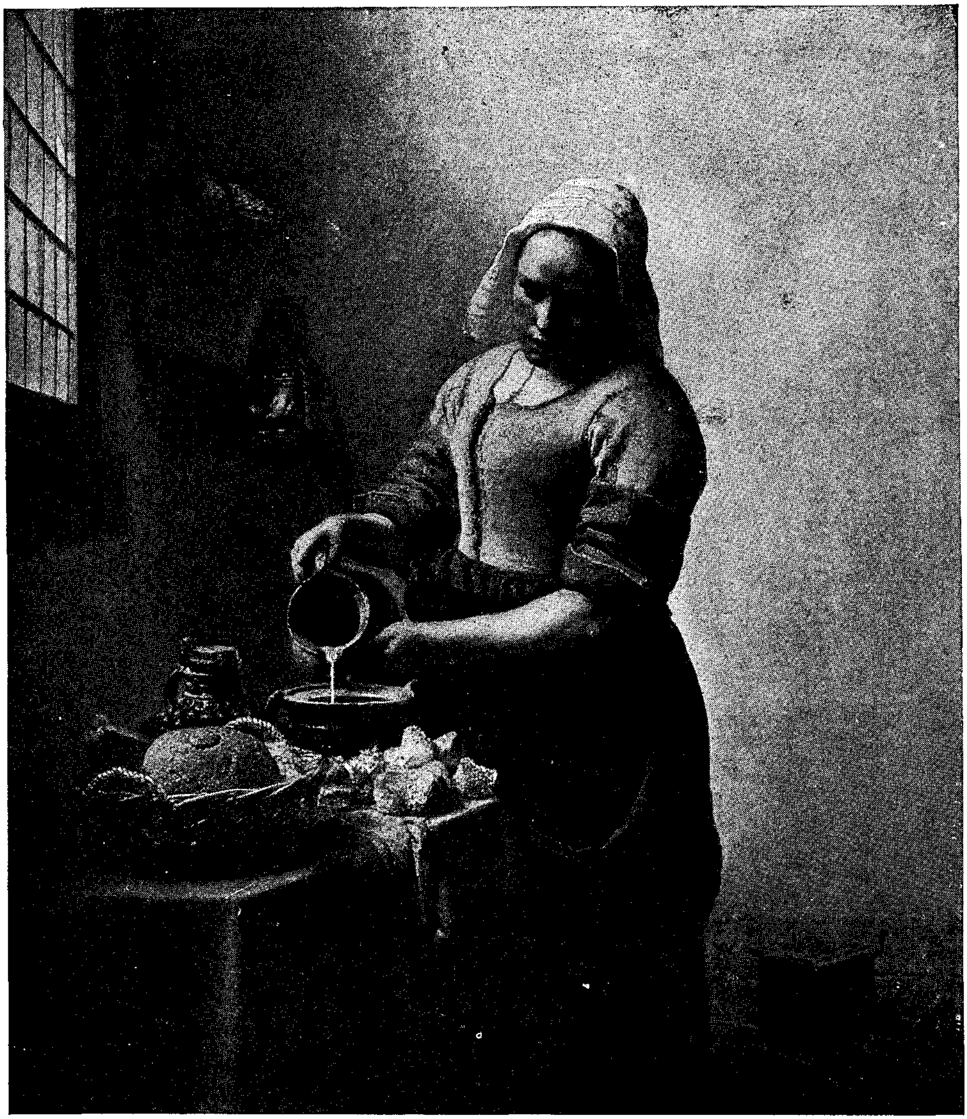
called, is at Count Czernin's, a comfortable mansion at No. 9 Landesgericht Strasse, open to visitors only on Mondays and Thursdays. The picture may not have such radiance as the "Pearl Necklace" at Berlin, or such charm as the "Woman Reading a Letter" at the Ryks, or such sheer beauty as the Mauritshuis "Girl's Head," but it is brilliant and satisfying. It does not give me such pleasure as certain others to be named later, but it is in some ways perhaps finer. Vermeer is seated at his ease, with his back to the world—a largish man with long hair under a black velvet cap and the careful costume of a man who can pay for his bread. Nor does the studio suggest poverty. The artist is at work on the head of a demure damsel whom he has posed near the window, with the light falling upon her, of course from the left. The little mousy thing has a wreath of leaves in her hair and a large book held to her breast; in her right hand is a long musical instrument. On the wall is the most fascinating map that the artist painted—with twenty little views of Dutch towns in the two borders. Vermeer was the first to see the decorative possibilities that lie in cartography; and he was also, one conjectures, a geographer by inclination.

We went next to Dresden, which has two Vermeers and a light and restful hotel, the Bellevue, very agreeable to repose in after our caravanserai at Vienna. The famous Raphael is, of course, Dresden's lodestar, and next come the Correggios; and there is a triptych by Jan van Eyck too, and Van Dyck's "Man in Armor;" but it is Vermeer of whom we are talking, and the range of Vermeer cannot be understood at all unless one sees him in the capital of Saxony. For it is here that his "Young Courtesan" (chastely softened by the modest Baedeker into "The Young Connoisseur") is found; and just as the "View of Delft" is his only known landscape and the Skalmorlie Castle picture his only known religious subject, so is this his only known effort at realism. It is a large picture, for him—nearly five feet by four—and it represents a buxom, wanton girl of a ripe beauty, dressed in a lace cap and hood and a bright yellow bodice, considering the value of a coin which a roistering Dutchman is offering her. Behind is an old woman, curious as to the result, and beside her is another roisterer, rather like the artist in the Czernin picture, with similar cap and slashed sleeves, with a lifted glass and a mandolin. The whole party stands on a balcony, over the railing of which has been flung one of the heavy tapestries on which our painter loved to spend his genius. The picture is remarkable as being a new thing in Vermeer's career, and indeed a new thing in Dutch art; and it also shows that, had he liked, he might have done more with drama, for the faces of the two women are expressive and true; although, such was his incorrigible fastidiousness, his preference for the distinguished and radiant to the exclusion of all else, that he cannot make them either ugly or objectionable. The procuress is a Vermeer among procuresses, the courtesan a Vermeer among courtesans. The fascination of the canvas, though totally different from that of any other of his works, is equal in its way. It has a large, easy power as well as being a beautiful and daring work of color.

The other Dresden picture is also a little off Vermeer's usual road. The subject is familiar: the Dutch girl reading a letter by a table on which are the customary cloth and a dish of apples; the light comes through the same window and falls on the same white wall; but the tone of the work is distinct, somber green prevailing.

Next Berlin. After the girl at the Mauritshuis, which among the figures comes always first with me, and the "View of Delft," it is, I think, the Berlin "Necklace" that is Vermeer's most charming work. I consider the white wall in this painting beautiful beyond the power of words to express. It is so wonderful that if one were to cut out a few square inches of this wall alone and frame it, one would have a joy forever. Franz Hals's planes of black have never been equaled, but Vermeer's planes of white seem to me quite as unapproachable. The whole picture has radiance and light and delicacy; painters gasp before it.

The other Vermeer in the superb gallery over which Dr. Bode presides with such inspired judgment and dangerous enthusiasm (dangerous, I mean, to other nations) is not so remarkable; but it is burned into my memory no less. That white Delft jug I shall never forget. The woman drinking, with her face seen through the glass as Terburg would have done it (I like to see painters excelling now and again at each other's mannerisms), the rich figure of the Dutch gentleman watching her, the room with its checkered floor—all these I can visualize with an effort; but the white Delft jug—that the retina never loses. Vermeer, true ever to his native town and home, painted this jug several times. Not so often as Metsu, but with a nobler touch. You find it notably again in the King's example at



VERMEER'S "THE MILKWOMAN"

"It is done with such mastery, sympathy, and beauty"

Windsor Castle. Berlin has also a private Vermeer which I did not see—Mr. James Simon's "Mistress and Servant." Two other pictures I also ought to have seen before leaving Germany—one at Brunswick and one at Frankfort.

At Amsterdam we went first to the grave and noiseless mansion of the Six family, at No. 511 Heerengracht, one of the most beautiful and reserved of the canals of this city. I am writing of 1907, before the negotiations for the purchase by the State of Vermeer's "Milkwoman" were completed, and we therefore saw it in its natural habitat, where it had been for two hundred and more years. But now, at a cost of 500,000 florins ($200,000, or at nearly $775 a square inch), it has passed to the Ryks. The price sounds beyond reason, but it is not. Granted that a kind and portly Dutchwoman at work in her kitchen is a subject for a painter, here is it done with such mastery, sympathy, and beauty as not only to hold one spellbound but to be beyond appraisement. No sum is too much for the possession of this unique work; at the sale of Vermeer's work in 1696 it brought 175 florins.

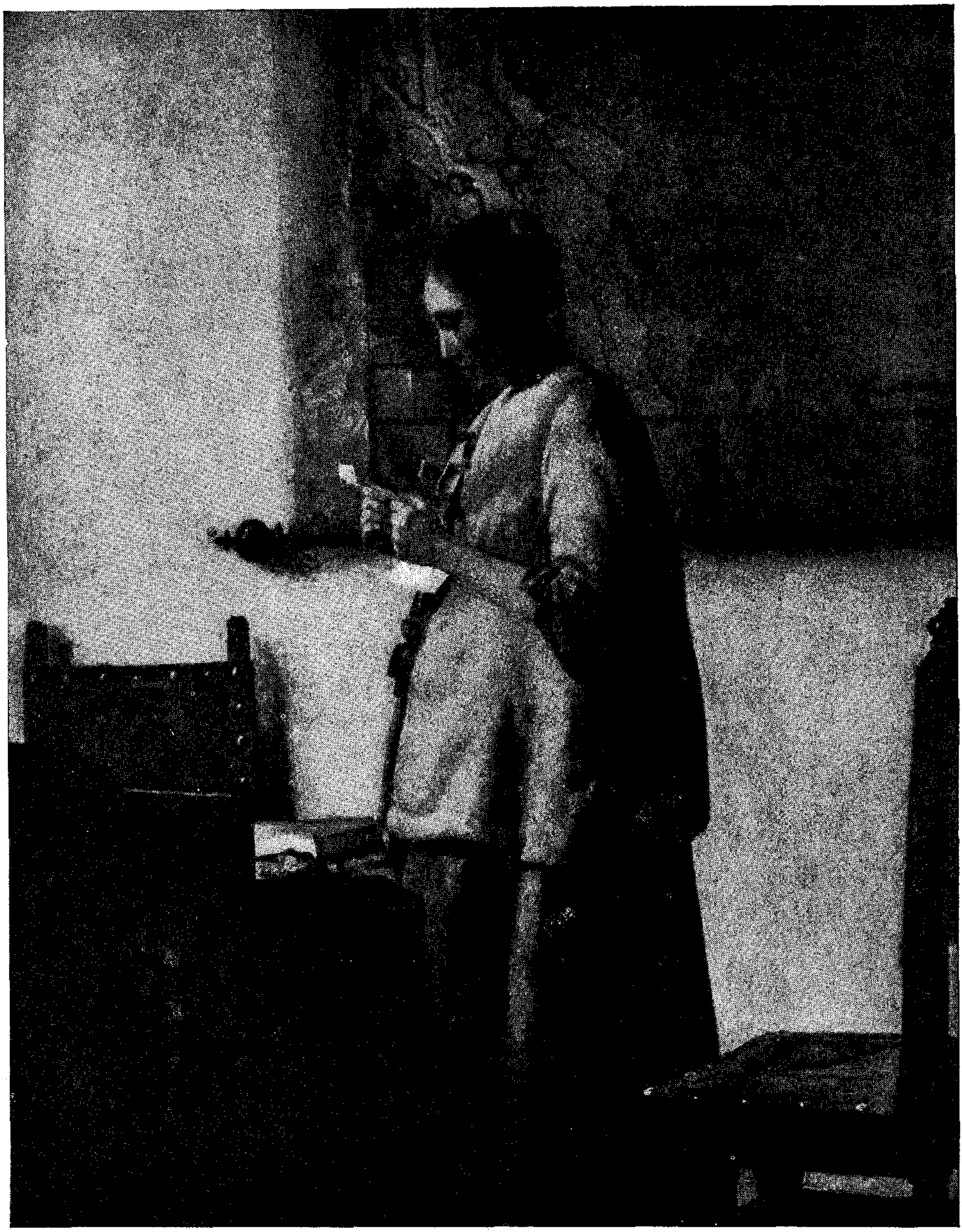
Vermeer here is at his most vigorous and powerful. His other works are notable above everything for charm; such a picture as the "Pearl Necklace," at Berlin, represents the ecstasy of perfection in paint. But here we find strength too. I never saw a woman more firmly set upon canvas; I never saw a bodice that was so surely filled with a broad, beating bosom. Only a very great man could so paint that quiet, capable face. Some large pictures are very little and some small pictures are large. This "Milkwoman" by Vermeer is only eighteen inches by fifteen, but it is to all intents and purposes a full-length; on no life-size canvas could a more real and living woman be painted. When you are at Amsterdam, you cannot give this picture too much attention; be sure to notice also the painting of the hood and the drawing of the still life, especially the jug and the bowl. It was this picture, one feels, that shone before the dear Chardin all his life as a star.

The other Six Vermeer is that Delft façade which artists adore. The charm of it is not to be communicated by words, or, at any rate, words of mine. It is as though Peter de Hooch had known sorrow, and, emerging triumphant and serene, had then begun to paint again. And yet that is of course not all, for de Hooch, with all his radiant tenderness, had not this man's native aristocracy of mind, nor could any suffering have given it to him. Like the "View of Delft," like the "Young Courtesan," this picture stands alone not only in Vermeer's record but in the art of all time. Many grow the flower now, but the originator still stands alone and apart, as indeed, by God's justice, originators are often permitted to.

The Vermeers at the Ryks were in 1907 two in number (now made three by the "Milkwoman"); and of these one I do not like, however much one is astounded by its dexterity, and one I could never tire of. The picture that I do not like—"The Love Letter"—with the "New Testament Allegory" at The Hague, shows the painter in his most dashing mood of virtuosity. Neither has charm, but both have a masterful dexterity that not only leaves one bewildered but kills all the other *genre* painters in the vicinity. Both were painted, I conjecture, to order, to please some foolish purchaser who frequented the studio. But the other Ryks picture—the "Woman Reading a Letter"—here is the essential Vermeer again in all his delicacy and quietude. It was the first of his best pictures that I ever saw, and I fell under his spell instantly. What I have said of the "Milkwoman" applies also to the "Reader." She becomes after a while a full-length. The picture is only twenty inches by sixteen, but the woman also takes her place in the memory as life size. It is one of the simplest of all, comparable with the "Pearl Necklace," but a little simpler still. The woman's face has been injured, but it does not matter; you don't notice it after a moment; her intent expression remains, her gentle contours are unharmed. The jacket she wears is of the most beautiful blue in Holland, the map is a yellowish brown, the wall is white.

Writing in another place some years ago, I ventured to call Vermeer's picture of a girl's head at The Hague one of the most beautiful things in Holland. I must modify that statement now. I say now quite calmly that it is the most beautiful thing in Holland. To me it is also the most satisfying and exquisite product of brush and color that I have anywhere seen. The painting of the lower lip is as much a miracle to me as a flower or a butterfly. The line of the right cheek is surely the sweetest line ever traced. I don't expect you to come a stranger to this face and feel what I feel; but I ask you to look at it quietly and steadily for a little while until it smiles back at you again—as surely it will. Who was this child? one wonders. One of the painter's? One of the eight, whom it amused him to dress in this Oriental garb that he might play with the cool harmonies of yellow and green and the youthful Dutch complexion? If this is so, it is one of his latest pictures, for all his many children were under age when he died.

Heer des Tombes bought her in an auction-room at The Hague for 2 florins 30 cents. Think of it—2 florins 30 cents! And if she found her way to Christie's to-day, I don't suppose that £30,000

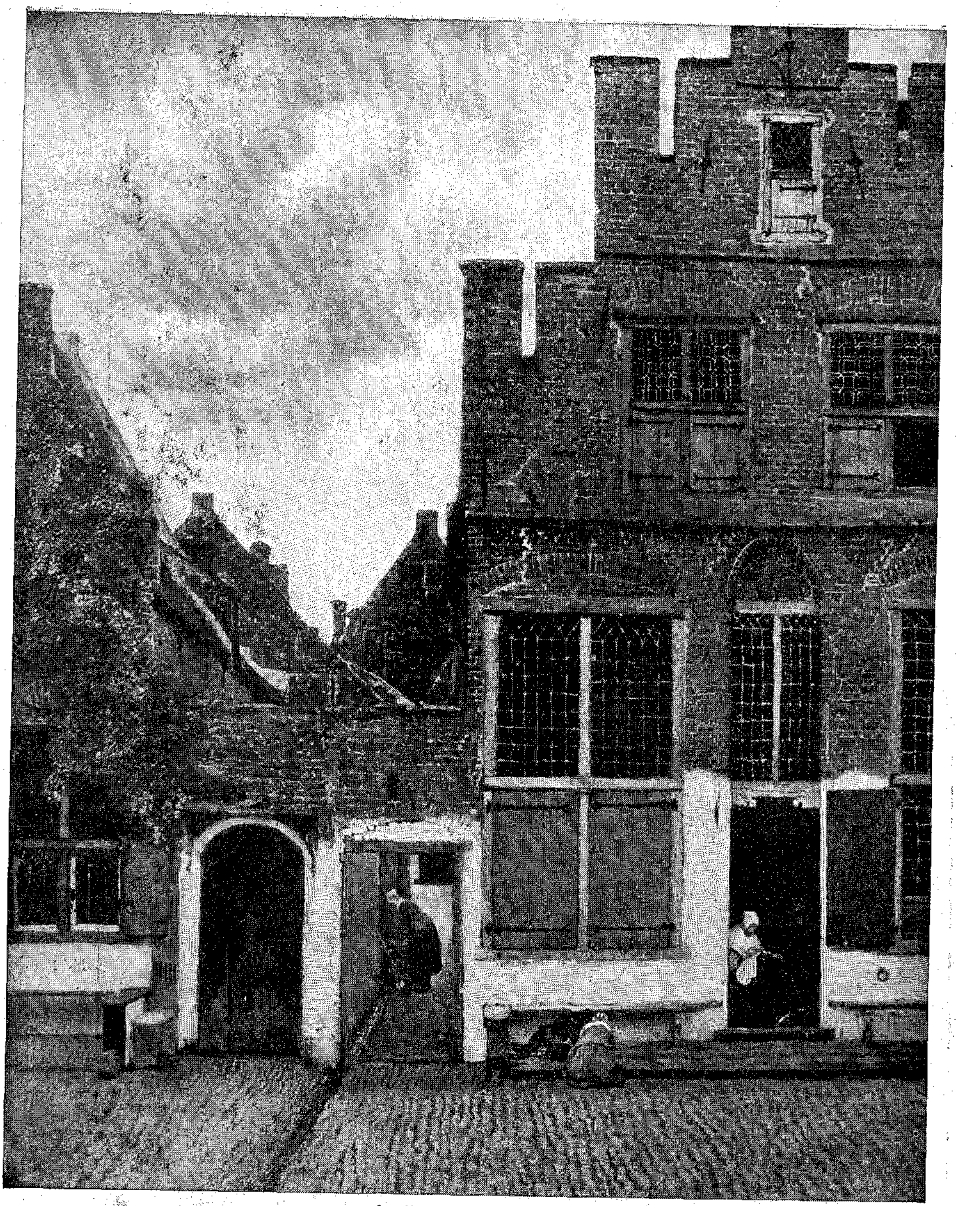


VERMEER'S "WOMAN READING A LETTER"

This painting is done with all his delicacy and quietude in a beautiful blue, yellowish brown, and white

would buy her. I know that I personally would willingly live in a garret if she were on its wall. But, leaving aside the human interest of the picture, did you ever see such ease as there is in this painting, such concealment of effort? It is as though the brush evoked life rather than counterfeited it; as though the child was waiting there behind the canvas to emerge at the touch of the brush-wand.

And the "View of Delft," what is one to say of that? Here again perfection is the only word. Its serenity is absolute, its charm is complete. You stand before it satisfied—except for that height-



VERMEER'S "A STREET IN DELFT"

ened emotion, that choking feeling and the smarting eyes which perfection compels. The picture is still the last word in the painting of a town. Not all the efforts of artists since have improved upon it; not one has done anything so beautiful. It is indeed because he painted these two pictures that I have for Jan Vermeer of Delft such a feeling of gratitude and enthusiasm. That he handled the perfect brush is much, but perfection can leave one cold. Wonderful as are many of his other pictures that I have described, they would not alone have subjected me to so much traveling in Continental trains by day and night. But to see this head of a young girl and this view of Delft I would go anywhere. Of the "New Testament Allegory" I have spoken; but there remains the "Diana and her Nymphs," that gentle Italianate group of fair women, the painting of which Andrea himself might have overlooked. It is at once Vermeer and not Vermeer. It is very rich, very satisfying; but I for one should feel no sense of bereavement if another name were put to it. As a matter of fact, Nicolaes Maes was long held to have been its author. A fifth Vermeer the Mauritshuis possessed just then, the tiny picture of a girl with a flute, in a Chinese hat (or something very like it), with an elaborate background; not one of the most attractive Vermeers, except technically, but Vermeer through and through, and so modern and innovating that were it hung in an exhibition to-day it would look out of place only by reason of its power. The picture (recently reproduced in The Outlook) is 7½ inches by 6¾, and it now belongs to Mr. Pierpont Morgan.

After Delft, where we roamed a while to reconstruct Vermeer's environment, but where, I regret to say, little is known of him, Brussels. For Vermeer there, one must visit the d'Arenberg mansion, in the Rue de la Régence. It is open to the picture lover, like that of Count Czernin, only on certain days. The gallery is small and chiefly Dutch, with a few good pictures in it. The Vermeer is isolated on an easel—the most unmistakable Vermeer perhaps of all, and yet cruelly treated by time, for it is a mass of cracks. Yet through these wounds the beautiful living light of a young girl's face shines—not the girl we have seen at The Hague, but the ghost of her—her sister, as I conjecture, dressed in the same Eastern trappings—a girl with a strangely blank forehead and eyes widely apart, akin to the type of Madonna dear to Andrea del Sarto. The same girl, I think, sat for the "Player of the Clavichord" in Mr. Salting's picture, to which we soon come. She is a little sad and a little strange, this child, and only a master could have created her. At Brussels also is Vermeer's "Geographer," in the collection of the Viscomte du Bus de Gisignies; but this I did not then know.

After Brussels, Paris—a good exchange. Paris has one Vermeer in a private collection—Alphonse de Rothschild's—an astronomer, which I have not seen; and one in the Louvre—the beautiful "Dentellière," before which I have stood scores of times. This, too, is very small—only a few inches square—but the serene busy head is painted as largely as if it were in a fresco. The lighting is from the right instead of the left—a very rare experiment with Vermeer.

In London we have five Vermeers that are beyond question, and at Windsor Castle is another. It is greatly to be regretted that our national Vermeer is not better. Not that it is not a marvel of technique; the paint is applied with all Vermeer's charm of touch, the room is filled with the light of day, there are marvelous details, but it is not a picture of which I am fond; it is a *tour de force*. That is the English nation's own only authentic Vermeer, but his name is placed conjecturally upon a large canvas of a sedate Dutchman and a little gentle boy—a beautiful gray thing, painted by no common hand, and yet not, I feel, Vermeer's. Of the other London Vermeers, two belong to Mr. Otto Beit. Just think of any one man having two Vermeers! There they hang, however, no matter what expression of perplexity may cross the face of Justice, in his beautiful house: one of them a tiny "Lady Seated at a Spinet," not in the first rank of fascination, but a little masterpiece nevertheless, and the other "A Lady Writing a Letter," notable for the strong and beautiful painting of the lady's face, foreshortened as she bends over her task. Beside her stands her blue-aproned maid, waiting to take the missive to the door. The table has its usual tapestry and the wall its picture, this time an Old Master. But the head of the lady is what one remembers—with her white cap and her pearl drops and her happy, prosperous countenance. Mr. Beit's Vermeers are in Belgrave Square; there is another in Hyde Park Gardens, the property of Mrs. Joseph; "The Soldier and the Laughing Girl," it is called. The girl sits at the table with a bright and merry face; the soldier, who has borrowed his red from Peter de Hooch, is in the shade; on the wall is a splendid rugged map of Holland and West Friesland. The picture is paintier than is usual with Vermeer. The other London Vermeer belongs to that princely collector Mr. George Salting: "The Player of the Clavichord"—the same girl that we have seen at Brussels seated at the instrument, while a gentleman plays a bass viol. The picture lacks radiance, and I found myself looking with more joy at Mr. Salting's other treasures—his new Rembrandt and his many Constables.

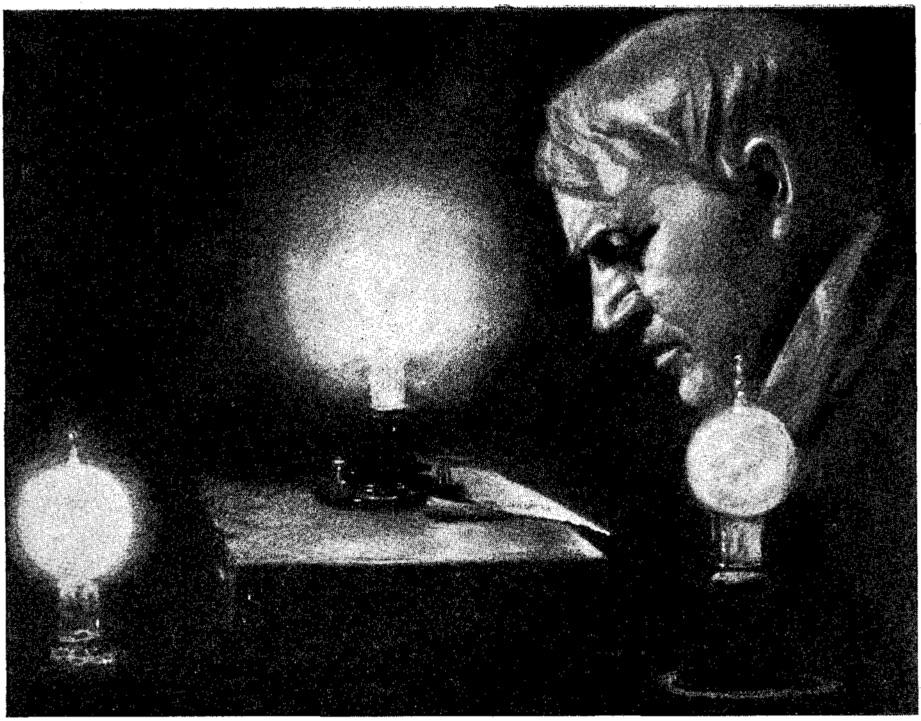
The Vermeer belonging to the King is very charming, but not one of the first rank, and a coating of varnish does not improve it. But it is from the perfect hand none the less, and there is the white Delft jug in it for the eye to return to like a haven after every journey over the canvas.

One of the latest Vermeers to be discovered is the large picture of Christ in the house of Martha and Mary, which, when it was exhibited in Bond Street some few years ago, divided the experts, but is now, although not confidently, given to our painter by Dr. de Groote. This picture, which I have not seen, has, in the reproduction, much of the large, easy confidence of the "Diana and her Nymphs" at The Hague. It hangs now in Skalmorlie Castle.

Five of the six examples now in America I have not seen: Mr. B. Altman's "Woman Asleep" (from the Rodolph Kann collection), Mr. James Johnson's "Lady with the Mandolin," Mrs. Jack Gardner's "Three Musicians," Mr. H. C. Frick's "Singing Lesson," and the "Woman with the Water Jug," in the Metropolitan Museum in New York. These are all before me. Of the thirty-four known Vermeers which Dr. de Groote gives, I have seen twenty-two. Thirty-four in all; that is to say, one fewer for Vermeer's whole career than the Boningtons to be seen in a single London collection—that at Hertford House, where there are thirty-five of his works. And Bonington died at the age of twenty-seven. How many pictures of Bonington's exist I know not, but hundreds, I suppose, in all. And Vermeer has only thirty-four to his name, and lived nearly twice as long, and had eight children to support.

The question that confronts us, the question to which all these remarks of mine have been leading, then, is, *Where are the others?* Because there must have been others; indeed we know of a few. But there must have been many others, since Vermeer began to paint when he was young, and painted till the end, and had a working period of, say, twenty-four years—between 1652, when he was twenty, and 1676, when he died. At the modest rate of only four pictures a year, this would give him a total of ninety-six pictures, or sixty-two more than we know of. But putting his output at a lower rate—say at only two pictures a year (which is absurd)—that would leave us with fourteen still to discover.

Vermeer may, of course, have himself destroyed some, as Claude Monet recently did. But I do not think so. No, they still exist somewhere. And the question, Where are they? brings us back to the wealth of Mr. Pierpont Morgan. With it I would furnish expeditions, not to discover the Poles, North and South, because I care nothing for them; not to conquer the air, because I love too much to feel my feet on this green earth; not to break banks or to finance companies; but simply to hunt among the byways of northern Europe in the hope of coming upon another work by that exquisite Delft hand. That is how I would spend my money; and, incidentally, what charming adventures one would have, and what subsidiary treasure one would gather! That would be an expedition worth making, even if the prime objects of the search always eluded us.



MR. EDISON READING BY THE LIGHT OF HIS FIRST INCANDESCENT LAMP

DRAWN BY WILLIAM OBERHARDT

Edison and the Incandescent Light

By Frank Marshall White

IT was thirty years ago on the 21st of last December that Thomas B. Connery, then managing editor of the New York "Herald," rushed into the office of that journal, at the corner of Broadway and Ann Street, two or three hours earlier in the day than was his wont, and sought Albert E. Orr, the city editor. Connery carried a copy of the "Herald" of that morning, which he flung down and spread out on Orr's desk, and, pointing to a page article devoted to an account of the discovery of an incandescent electric lighting system by Thomas A. Edison, he inquired, almost tearfully:

"How did that stuff get into the paper, Mr. Orr? Lights strung on wires, indeed! You've made a laughing-stock of the 'Herald!' Oh, what *will* Mr. Bennett say!"

"He'll probably say that it is the biggest newspaper beat in a long time," responded the city editor.

"But don't you know that it has been absolutely demonstrated that that kind of a light is against the laws of nature?" demanded Connery, pathetically. "Who wrote the article?"

"Marshall Fox," replied Orr.

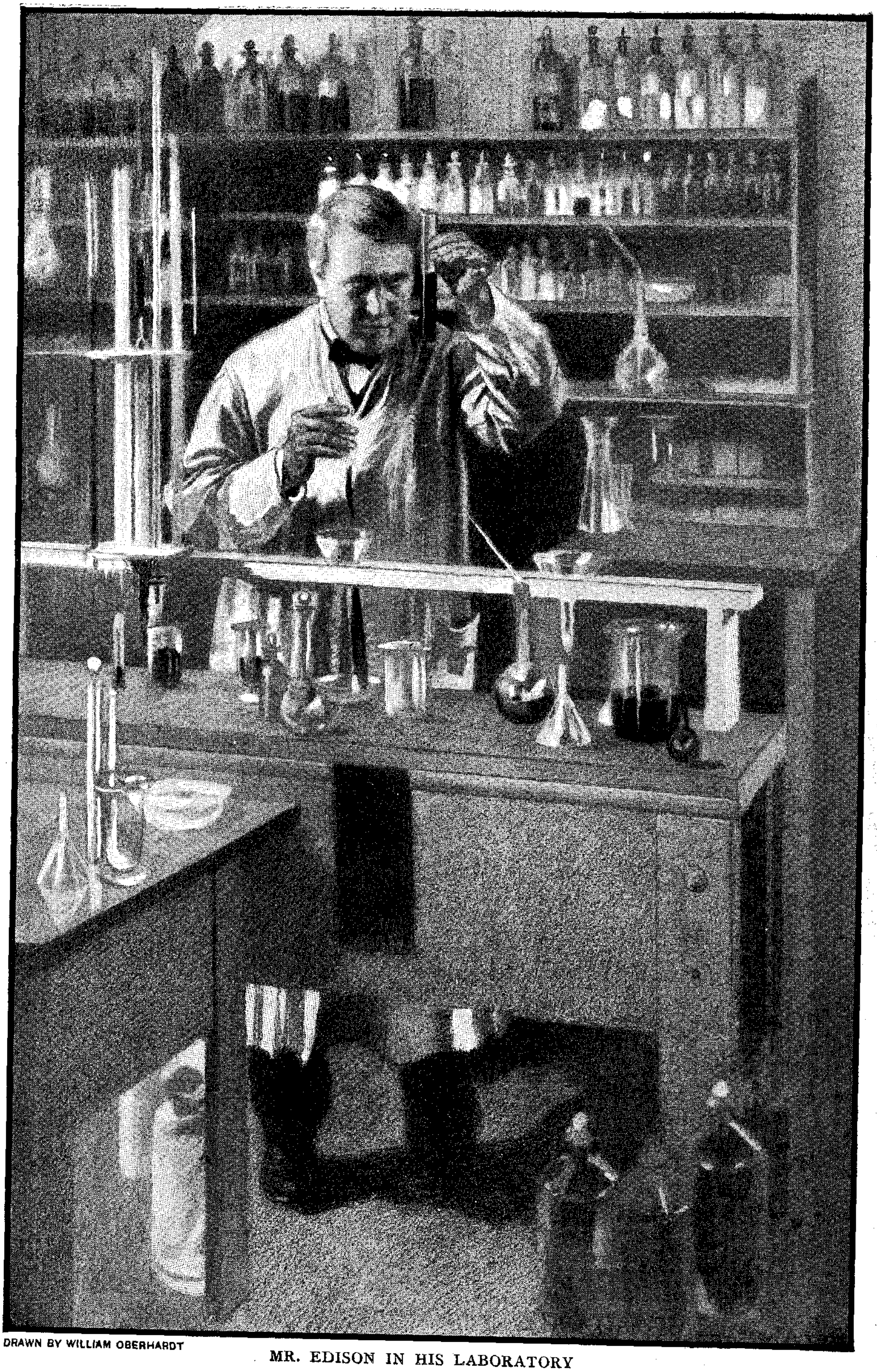
"How could he have allowed himself and the paper to be so imposed upon!" cried Connery. "Where is he? Send for him. We must do something to save ourselves from ridicule. No, don't try to explain anything. Just find Fox, and send him to me," and the managing editor retired to his own room to read the unbelievable article over again and reflect upon the illimitation of human credulity and the prospective anger of the proprietor of the "Herald" when he should witness the most recent manifestation of it in the columns of his newspaper.

The information set forth in the "Herald" of December 21, 1879, that Edison had succeeded in subdividing the electric current and had invented a light better than gas that could be produced as cheaply, meant one of the greatest scientific achievements of the age, with a commercial attachment that has made the phrase about the potentiality of wealth beyond the dreams of avarice sound frivolous. It was not at all surprising, however, that Mr. Connery should have believed that his reporter had been imposed upon, since not only had such leading English scientists as William Henry Preece (now Sir William) and Dr. Paget-Higgs proved to their own satisfaction and that of most of their contemporaries that the electric current could *not* be subdivided, but no one of all the electricians of the time, American and foreign, would admit that he believed that it *could* be subdivided. All the experimentation on both sides of the water with the view to the production of a practical electric light was being done with the arc lamp, to which branch such men as Charles F. Brush, Edward Weston, and Elihu Thomson were devoting their energies here.

Edison was only thirty-one years of age at that time, but his previous inventions had already given him a world-wide reputation, and the circumstance that he was studying the problem of subdivision in relation to electric lighting had been known to the scientists of Europe and America, who were much interested in the outcome of his experiments, even though none of them believed that they would prove successful. Indeed, in an address on the subject of the electric light before the Royal Institution in London the previous January, Professor John Tyndall had said: "Edison has the penetration to seize the relationship of facts and principles and the art to reduce them to novel and concrete combinations. Hence, though he has thus far accomplished nothing new in relation to the electric light, an adverse opinion as to his ability to solve the complicated problem on which he is engaged would be unwarranted." That Tyndall did not have much confidence that the young American would demonstrate the proposition is indicated in his concluding remark on the subject. "Knowing something of the intricacy of the practical problem," he said, "I should certainly prefer seeing it in Mr. Edison's hands to having it in mine."

At the time that Edison was making his experiments the Brush and United States electric lighting companies, using the arc lamp, were already in existence, and Union Square and Madison Square, New York, were illuminated by this light, as well as the public squares of Cleveland, Ohio, Brush's home. In 1878 Brush exhibited a small arc lighting dynamo at the Mechanics' Fair in Boston, and the plant was afterward installed in a clothing store in that city, where it was intended as much for advertising as illumination. On the coasts of England and France the arc lamp was also in use in lighthouses, and parts of the Thames Embankment and Holborn Viaduct in London were similarly lighted experimentally, as was the office of the London "Times." Nevertheless, in an article in the "Fortnightly Review" for February, 1879, Professor Tyndall declared: "Though we have possessed the electric light for seventy years, it has been too costly to come into general use." He was sanguine enough to express his belief, however, that electricity would ultimately "illuminate our streets, halls, quays, squares, warehouses, and, perhaps at no distant day, our homes."

Backed by a company with a capital of $300,000, composed of such men as J. Pierpont Morgan, J. Hood Wright, Henry Villard, Grosvenor P. Lowrey, and Edward D. Adams, Edison started the experiments that resulted in the present system of electric lighting in 1878 at Menlo Park in New Jersey, where he had already invented the carbon telephone transmitter and the phonograph. The difficulty existing with the arc light was that it could not be subdivided into units of less than 200 or 300 candle-power, which was too powerful a flame for ordinary purposes, and further required continual attention. Edison's task was to devise a light that would compare in size and expense with the ordinary gas jet, and that might be handled as easily as gas,



DRAWN BY WILLIAM OBERHARDT

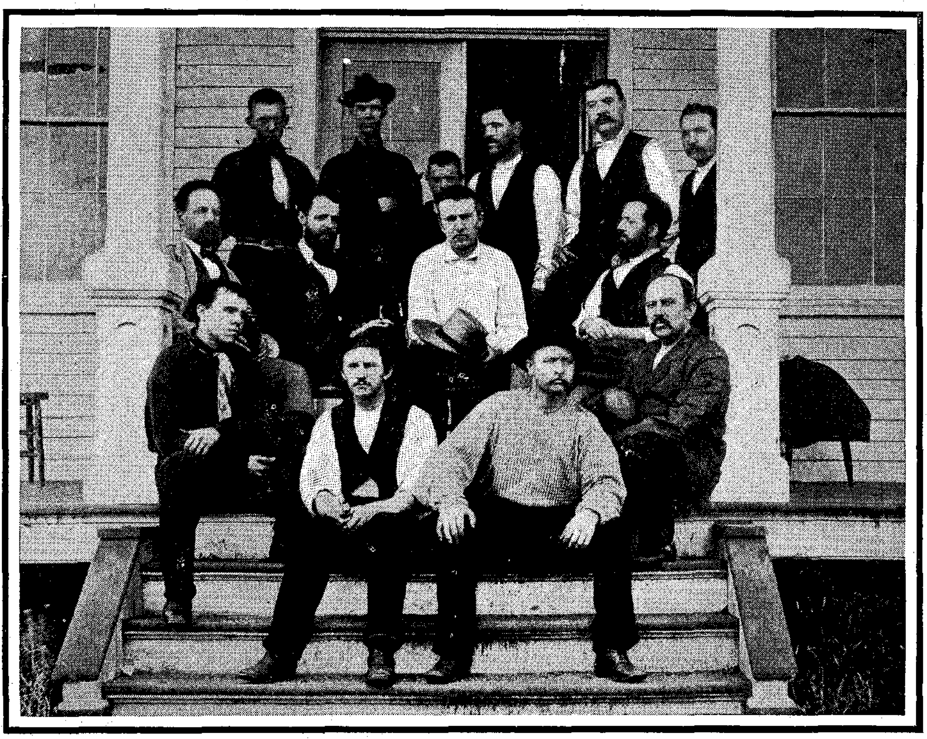
MR. EDISON IN HIS LABORATORY

together with a system for its generation and distribution. Early in the progress of his efforts to solve the problem the inventor reached a conclusion as to the distinctly characteristic features that a general system of electric lighting should possess, and he proceeded to give them the tangible operative form in which to-day they continue to survive in the world-wide application of electricity to lighting by incandescent lamps.

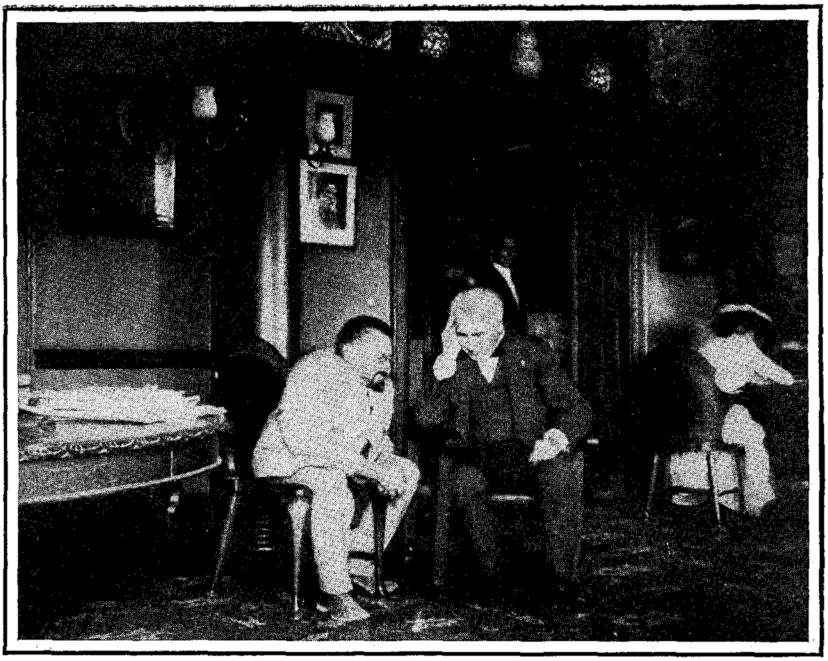
Edison's first marked accomplishment in operative details was a lamp with a platinum wire burner of high resistance protected by a high vacuum in a glass globe and with the leading-in wires sealed into the glass by fusion, which, however, had small illuminating power and uncertain tenure of life. The next great step was not taken until October of the following year, when he discovered that a carbonized cotton thread used as a burner in place of the platinum wire answered the exact purpose he was striving for. The accuracy of the following description of the manner in which he came to make the momentous discovery, taken from Marshall Fox's article in the "Herald," is vouched for by Edison himself:

"Sitting one night in his laboratory, reflecting on some of the unfinished details, Edison began abstractedly rolling between his fingers a piece of compressed lampblack mixed with tar for use in his telephone," wrote Fox. "For several minutes his thoughts continued far away, his fingers in the meantime mechanically rolling out the little piece of tarred lampblack until it had become a slender filament. Happening to glance at it, the idea occurred to him that it might give good results as a burner if made incandescent. A few minutes later the experiment was tried, and, to the inventor's gratification, satisfactory although not surprising results were obtained. Further experiments were made, with altered forms and compositions of the substance, each experiment demonstrating that at last the inventor was on the right track.

"A spool of cotton thread lay on the table in the laboratory. The inventor cut off a small piece, put it in a groove between two clamps of iron, and placed the



THOMAS A. EDISON AND HIS STAFF. TAKEN IN 1878 AT MENLO PARK, NEW JERSEY



PHOTOGRAPH BY LEAVITT L. EDGAR

THOMAS A. EDISON AND C. P. STEINMETZ AT BRIARCLIFF LODGE

latter in the furnace. The satisfactory light obtained from the tarred lampblack had convinced him that filaments of carbon of a texture not previously used in electric lighting were the hidden agents to make a thorough success of incandescent lighting, and it was with this view that he thought to test the carbon remains of a cotton thread. At the expiration of an hour he removed the iron mold containing the thread from the furnace and took out the delicate carbon framework of the thread—all that was left of it after its fiery ordeal. This slender filament he placed in a globe and connected it with the wires leading to the machine generating the electric current. Then he extracted the air from the globe and turned on the electricity.

"Presto! A beautiful light greeted his eyes. He turned on more current, expecting the fragile filament immediately to fuse, but no, the only change is a more brilliant light. He turns on more current, and still more, but the delicate thread remains entire. Then, with characteristic impetuosity, and wondering and marveling at the strength of the little filament, he turns on the full power of the machine and eagerly watches the consequences. For a minute or more the tender thread seems to struggle with the intense heat passing through it—heat that would melt the diamond itself—then at last it succumbs and all is darkness. The powerful current has broken it in twain, but not before it had emitted a light of several gas jets. Eagerly the inventor hastened to examine under the microscope this curious filament, apparently so delicate, but in reality much more infusible than platinum, so long considered one of the most infusible of metals. The microscope showed the surface of the filament to be highly polished and its parts interwoven with each other. It was also noticed that the filament had obtained a remarkable degree of hardness compared with its fragile character before it was subjected to the action of the current.

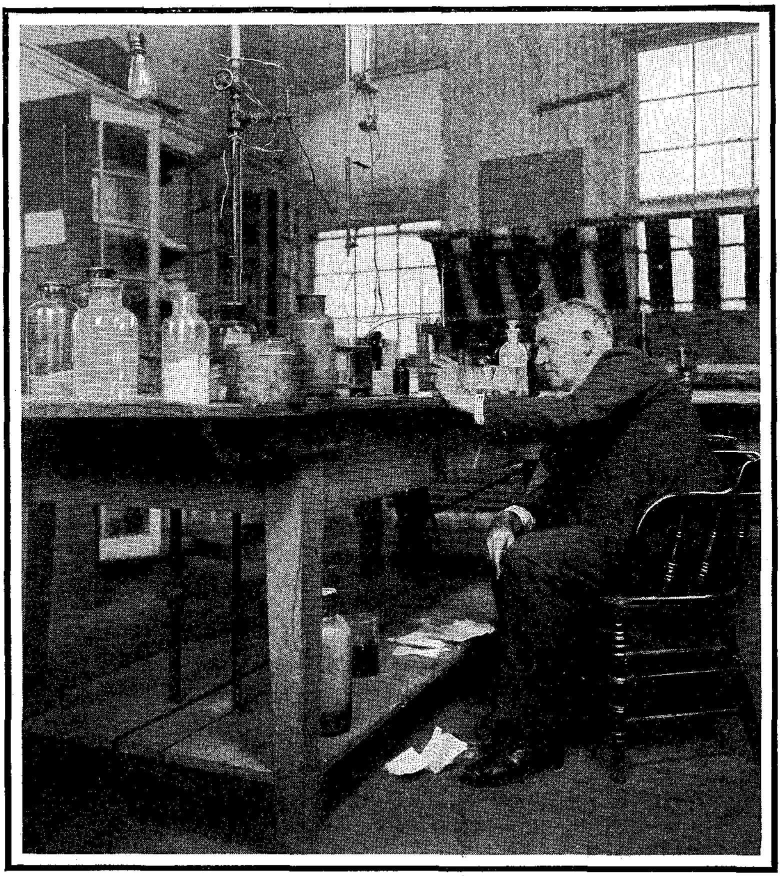
"Night and day, with scarcely rest enough to eat a hearty meal or catch a brief repose, the inventor kept up his experiments, and from carbonizing pieces of thread he went to splinters of wood, straw, paper, and many other substances never before used for that purpose. The result of his experiments showed that the substance best adapted for carbonization and the giving out of incandescent light was paper, preferably thick, like cardboard, but giving good results even when very thin. The beautiful character of the illumination and the steadiness, reliability, and non-fusibility of the carbon filament were not the only elements incident to the new discovery that brought joy to the heart of Edison. There was a further element—not the less necessary because of its being hidden—the element of a proper and uniform resistance to the electric current."

Edison embodied this discovery in the lamp described in United States Patent No. 223,898, that was filed November 4, 1879, and issued January 27, 1880, giving the fine, wirelike burner the still universally used name of "carbon filament." Improvements have since been made in the material and in the method of making the carbon filament, but the incandescent lamps everywhere in use to-day are like the lamp described and claimed in Patent No. 223,898 in all essential respects. Edison now invented a radically new type of dynamo-electric machine that would be suitable for operating incandescent lights, and also invented and constructed in his shops the first successful direct-connected steam dynamo, which was far greater in size and capacity than any machines made up to that time, and the prototype of the colossal direct-connected, steam-driven electric generators now in use throughout the world.

It was not until January 1 that Edison invited the public to visit Menlo Park and witness the operation of the first electric lighting plant in existence. The result was that gas stocks in Europe and America fell to almost nothing, while the $100 shares of the Edison Electric Lighting Company went as high as $5,000 per share. Many electricians refused to believe the evidence of their senses, and insisted that there was some trickery in the exhibition at Menlo Park. One well-known scientist and inventor challenged Edison to come to his house and make a 12-candle lamp burn for three hours, but the "wizard of Menlo Park," as he came to be known, ignored all unbelievers and went on improving his apparatus. In the summer and fall his laboratory and workshops, with many surrounding private houses, were brilliantly lighted by the new lamps, and long rows of lamp-posts, each crowned with an incandescent lamp, illuminated the adjacent highways and byways, Menlo Park becoming one of the show places of the country.

In all the history of commerce there is nothing to equal the swiftness with which the Edison system of electric lighting spread over civilization. Syndicates were formed simultaneously to introduce the new light in almost every country in Europe, and South America, Asia, and Africa did not lag far behind. England pushed matters with so much celerity that it is a disputed point to-day whether the first actual central electric lighting station to be opened was the one on Holborn Viaduct in London or the one in Pearl Street in New York City. An idea of the pace made may be obtained from the records of the New York Edison Company, which began operations in a district about a square mile in extent, bounded by Wall, Nassau, Spruce, and Ferry Streets, Peck Slip, and the East River, with its generating plant in Pearl street, energizing about 400 lamps, on September 4, 1882. At the present time—less than thirty years later—the company's system embraces all Manhattan Island and the Borough of the Bronx. It has 60,000 customers, and current is fed through 81,000 meters to an equivalent of 6,000,000 lamps. The capacity of the electric motors on its mains is equal to 186,000 horse-power. Many of the men and women and boys and girls who went downtown in the early '80s of the last century to witness the wonder of the 400 electric lamps saw the crowning achievement in electric lighting at the Hudson-Fulton celebration a few months ago, when 600,000 lamps blazed nightly and the searchlight display aggregated 2,000,000,000 candle-power.

In 1882 there were about sixty central electric lighting stations in North America. To-day there are 60,000 stations, and T. Commerford Martin, the electrical expert, who, with Frank L. Dyer, is writing a life of Edison that is soon to be brought out by the Harpers, estimates that a billion dollars is invested in the public lighting plants in the country, and that these plants have 41,000,000 incandescent lamps connected to their mains,



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ANOTHER PORTRAIT OF MR. EDISON AT WORK

with 500,000 arc lamps and 150,000 motors of 750,000 horse-power. This apparatus and countless fan motors and heating and cooking appliances are fed with electrical energy from dynamos of more than 2,000,000 horse-power capacity.

An average of 45,000 persons are employed in the public lighting stations of the country, whose wages amount in the aggregate to more than $35,000,000 per annum; and these figures do not include 100,000 isolated electric plants with 33,000 employees receiving aggregate wages of $17,000,000 yearly. Aside from this great army of workers, 14,000 more are employed turning out the 150,000,000 electric lamps consumed annually at the central and isolated lighting stations, and these are paid at least $8,000,000 per year, while the manufacture of fixtures for the lamps necessitates the employment of an additional 6,000, who are paid $3,750,000 each year. This does not complete the list of employees in the Edison system of electric lighting either, for its detail devices require many thousand more workers, whose annual wages amount to millions. Thus this one invention, which is only thirty years old, is paying at least $65,000,000 in wages annually to more than 100,000 working men and women, as well as the profits on an investment of a billion dollars of capital. Mr. Edison's biographers estimate that the gross earnings of the public lighting stations alone for the present year will approximate $225,000,000.

Nor do these enormous figures comprise the entire financial increment from the incandescent lighting system. Not only have the original stockholders in the Edison Company made great fortunes, but the men associated with the inventor at Menlo Park—the late Charles Batchelor, his principal assistant; F. R. Upton, his mathematician; and the late John Kruesi, his chief machinist—rose rapidly to wealth. Marshall Fox, the "Herald" man to whom Edison gave the first information about his invention, was keen enough to see its commercial future at the start. He played an important part in bringing out electric lighting companies in Europe, and is a prominent figure among American capitalists in England to-day. Moreover, there is probably not a city in the entire realm of civilization in which there are not men controlling fortunes aggregating millions upon millions, all based upon Edison's invention of thirty years ago.

And the incandescent electric lighting system is only one of many inventions by Thomas A. Edison. Indeed, on the principle that the man who makes two blades of grass grow where one grew before is entitled to public gratitude, Edison may be called the greatest material benefactor of his time. Founded on his inventions and inventions of others to which he has contributed essential factors of successful operation, according to Mr. Edison's biographers, are industries now capitalized at more than $7,000,000,000, that are earning annually more than $1,000,000,000, and giving employment to above half a million people, to whom will be paid something like $400,000,000 this year in salaries and wages.

It is estimated that more than four times the money invested in electric lighting is invested in electric railways, based largely on Edison's original broad ideas, in the United States to-day; wherefore an industry that has grown up in the last quarter-century is now employing $4,000,000,000 of capital, has a gross annual revenue of $430,000,000, and pays $155,000,000 in wages to 250,000 people. Eight hundred and thirty million dollars is invested in telephone systems and apparatus, to which Edison contributes that important part the transmitter, the gross annual revenue from this industry being $190,000,000, while it pays $80,000,000 in wages to 152,000 employees. In the phonograph and moving picture business and moving picture theaters $50,000,000 is invested, and $43,000,000 is being paid in salaries to 80,000 people. Four million dollars is invested in Edison Portland cement, from which industry there is a gross annual revenue of $2,000,000, and $400,000 is paid in wages to 530 employees. Sixty million dollars is invested in dynamos and motors, and the business brings in a gross annual revenue of $50,000,000 and pays $20,000,000 to 30,000 working people. Finally, $250,000,000 is invested in telegraphy in which the "Edison quadruplex" is used, and there is a gross revenue of $60,000,000 and a pay-roll of $30,000,000 to 100,000 employees. Edison's earliest fame was founded on his great practical work in telegraphic inventions and improvements, but there is no way in which a definite computation may be made of the comparative value of his contributions to the art, except in the case of the "quadruplex"—by means of which eight operators may work on a single wire—through which alone it is estimated that there has been saved from $15,000,000 to $20,000,000 in the cost of line construction in this country.

These figures are based upon the Special Reports of the Census Bureau, 1902 and 1907, with additions computed upon subsequent increase, and it is said that, stupendous though they are, they are well within the mark. In the wage totals are included compensation paid to salaried officials and clerks. It should be borne in mind that the figures include the United States alone, and that they may be doubled to comprise the Edison inventions in use on similar lines as here in other parts of the world, and then fall short of the actuality.

Without taking into consideration the propulsive force of the immense amounts of capital he has diverted from other uses, and aside from the fact that he has made the world better worth living in for all of us, Edison's influence is enormous in respect alone of the number of toilers who earn a livelihood in the industries to which his genius has given birth. A rough estimate of the proportion of these workers to the other inhabitants of the country will give an idea of how far-reaching that influence is. Taking, then, the population to be 100,000,000, and assuming that all the workers in the Edison concerns mentioned above are men, one of every 40 adult males in the United

States would in a measure owe the opportunity to be making his living to the great inventor.

To-day, at the age of sixty-three, forty-one years from the time he took out his first patent, Edison is in his mental and physical prime—and still hard at work. He has made one great fortune after another, but nobody knows how much he has accumulated, for millions are invested in the plant at Orange, New Jersey, containing his laboratory, where are grouped those industrial enterprises of which he is either the sole or controlling owner and guiding spirit: the National Phonograph Company, the Edison Business Phonograph Company, the Edison Phonograph Works, the Edison Manufacturing Company, the Edison Storage Battery Company, and the Bates Manufacturing Company. Upward of 3,600 people are employed at this plant, and there is an annual pay-roll of two and a half millions of dollars. Experiments are carried on here absolutely without regard to expense. For instance, his experiments with metallic ores have cost Edison personally more than $2,000,000, and those made in bringing the storage battery which he has recently completed to its present state of perfection have cost him a million more. Experiments in the construction of the cement house on which he is working now have cost a hundred thousand dollars.

And what have we yet to expect from the man who has already made so tremendous an impress on his times? Edison himself believes that two of the inventions already referred to, on which he is now engaged, will have a potent influence in the betterment of human conditions—the cement house and the storage battery. The cement house, he thinks, will revolutionize the present mode of living on the part of the workingman, meaning the doom of the overcrowded tenements; and the storage battery will solve the traction problem and do away with the use of horses in cities.

The cement house is Mr. Edison's present to the workingman. Edison considers the electric light his most important invention, and he is at present inclined to rank the cement house next. What he expects to accomplish by this invention is the construction of a two-story house, 25 x 30 feet, with cellar and attic, that will pay fifteen per cent profit at a rental of $6.50 per month, within the suburban trolley radii of the cities. A model of this house is the most conspicuous object in Edison's laboratory to-day. It resembles a moderately expensive villa rather than a building that will come within the means of the humblest working people, being of pure white, with a red-tiled roof, a wide porch, and overhanging eaves. To build this house within the expense limit fixed by the inventor, he first erects a series of iron molds to the height it is to be, and then pours in liquid cement. After the cement has hardened the molds are taken down and the solid cement walls remain. Edison estimates that a complete set of molds for the house will cost about $25,000, and that the expense of interest and breakage on them in putting up a house will be about $120. If will take four days to put up the molds, six hours to pour the cement, four days for it to set, and two or three days to take down the molds. It has been proved by exhaustive tests that the inventor has produced a cement mixture that has all the characteristics of a fluid, that flows readily and fills all interstices and openings, and that during the flow the heavier aggregates are held in suspension so that they are distributed evenly throughout the mass.

The poured-cement house is a work of philanthropy on Edison's part, though he does not say much about that feature of it. He believes that these houses will be built by the mile in the suburbs of the big cities, and he intends to make contracts with the construction companies that put them up whereby they shall not make more than fifteen per cent on their investments. He does not intend to make anything himself out of the invention. In order to get the cement house movement started, Edison gave up personal work on his storage battery, which is now completed, however. In the new battery the active materials are oxides of nickel and iron, respectively, in the positive and negative electrodes, the electrolyte (the liquid in which the electrodes are immersed) being a solution of caustic potash in water. The retaining cans are of sheet-steel electroplated with nickel, fused so that they are practically one metal. The battery is practically unlimited as to life. As only the water in the potash solution evaporates, so only water need be added to keep the electrolyte in proper condition. There are no acid fumes to destroy the ironwork of a truck or wagon, as in the old-style batteries where sulphuric acid was used. The Edison battery weighs about half as much as a lead battery of the same potency, and in addition to this it will save about fifty per cent of its weight in the construction of the truck or wagon itself. The battery cannot be injured by overcharging, does not deteriorate when left discharged, offers accessibility to each cell, makes it possible for every cell to be removed, and gives nearly twice the output or mileage of a lead battery of the same weight. Edison is confident that it will revolutionize the traffic of the world, particularly in cities, and that it will rank among the greatest of his inventions.

Strangely enough, Edison does not seem to take much interest in aviation. At least he does not take sufficient interest in the subject to apply himself to the problem of a flying-machine. He believes that aviation is practicable; in fact, he predicts that within ten years the Government will be carrying the mails in flying-machines, but he does not believe that the aeroplane is the type that will last.

"My criticism of the aeroplane type of flying-machine is that it is a machine for sport," he says. "The flying problem now consists of 75 per cent machine and 25 per cent man. The commercially successful machine must be a device that any man of intelligence may learn to operate within a reasonable time, and, having learned to operate it, the performance must be certain. Little or nothing must be left to the peculiar skill of the operator. And it must be a machine that can go out when the time-table says it should go, regardless of weather conditions. I don't believe that the aeroplane will ever measure up to these conditions. I think the principle on which it is built is wrong. Too much power is necessary to sustain it.

"The flying-machine that will carry the mails will be small, the smaller the better, because of the less resistance to the air, and it ought to travel at the rate of at least one hundred miles an hour. Eventually it will go a great deal faster. Traveling in the air is not like traveling on the earth. The air offers comparatively little resistance. Put the power into a machine, and you can get almost any speed you want. But while the flying-machine will be fast, it will never be a great weight carrier. It will be used for mails, but not for freight."

Edison will not say that he could construct a flying-machine to meet the requirements he has outlined, but any one of his associates in the laboratory at Orange believes that he could do that, or anything else he set out to do. However, he has never bragged about doing a thing beforehand, or boasted afterward. His biographers tell a characteristic story about him. After indulging in reminiscences of old times and early inventions a short time ago, Edison leaned back in his chair and said with a smile: "Say, I *have* been mixed up in a whole lot of things, haven't I?"

THE CHRIST CHILD

BY EMILY NILES HUYCK

Thank God for that sweet season when he lay
 A little happy child on Mary's breast,
And knew, thus safely sheltered night and day,
 No weariness, who later knew not rest.
No coming shadow fell upon that bliss,
 No cross between the Mother and the Boy;
Companion of our tears and smiles in this—
 The "Man of Sorrows" was the Child of Joy.

Better Farming, Better Business Better Living

Two Practical Suggestions[1]

By Sir Horace Plunkett

IF I have given the true explanation why the farmers of the United States are deplorably backward in the matter of business combination in comparison with all other American workers, those who take part in the movement which is to provide the remedy will have set themselves a task as hopeful as it is interesting. All Americans are addicted to associated action; their farmers have always had a will to organize, but they have missed the way. Granges, Institutes, Clubs, Leagues, Alliances, and a multitude of miscellaneous farmers' associations have been organized for social, religious, political, and economic objects. From my study of the work done by these bodies, the impression is left on my mind that almost everything that can be better done by working together than by working separately has been the subject of organized effort. But these manifestations of activity have been fitful and sporadic. The political influence of the farming community has, for this reason, never been commensurate with either the numerical strength of its members or the magnitude of the Nation's work which they do. The Federal Department of Agriculture, appropriations for agricultural colleges, some railway legislation, and other boons to farmers are to be attributed to the efforts of their organizations. But, as compared with the influence exercised upon national affairs by the farmers of, say, France and Denmark, the American farmer has but a small control of legislation and administration affecting his interests. If there is one demand of the Government upon which the entire farming community are agreed, it is the establishment of a parcels post. The reasons—express reasons—why this most legitimate desire is not satisfied bear eloquent testimony to the truth of my main contention.

If better business be, as I have urged, the foundation of better farming, we shall expect to find the defective organization of farmers accompanied by a corresponding backwardness in agricultural practice. That this is the case is proved by the statistics of the comparative yield of the various crops, which are too well known to need repetition here. Things are improving, and the agricultural mind is slowly realizing the necessity for availing itself of the new educational facilities for applying the teachings of modern science to the conduct of farming. It is only during the last twenty years that the practical value of science in agriculture was recognized in the Middle and Far West. Until then there was general disbelief in the practical value of science. In cowboy terminology, all scientists used to be classified as "bug hunters." The Department of Agriculture was regarded as a source of jobs, "graft" being the nearest approach to any known agricultural operation.

All this is changing fast. The Federal Department of Agriculture is now the most popular and respected of the world's great administrative institutions. In the Middle West a newly awakened public opinion has set up an honorable rivalry between such States as Wisconsin, Iowa, Illinois, Nebraska, and Minnesota in developing the agricultural sides of their universities and colleges. But in spite of this, Mr. James J. Hill holds that not more than one per cent of the farmers of these regions are working in direct touch with any educational institution. I am firmly convinced that the chief remaining hindrance to better farming is that those who are engaged in the new educational work have not got associations, organized for business purposes, to assist them.

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[1] The last of a series of five articles on "Conservation and Rural Life," the first of which appeared in The Outlook of January 29.—THE EDITORS.

This limitation upon the influence of the university and college extension work is bad enough, but it is a far worse hindrance to progress that the thousands of young men who pass through these institutions have to restrict the practical application of their theoretic knowledge to the home circle. With co-operative organizations—I speak from administrative experience—the man with special knowledge will come to leadership. No man is a prophet in his own family.

I come now to the last part of our threefold scheme—to a better life upon the farm. There are works on this subject enough to fill a large library, but the book we want has yet to come. I need hardly say I shall not attempt here to supply the deficiency or cover the ground over which that book would have to range. I can only touch the subject at a few points which appear to me to be of vital importance.

Here, again, it will be seen that the essential thing is better business, which I have shown to be a matter of organization. The co-operative association, in virtue of its non-capitalistic constitution and procedure (which, as I have explained, distinguished it from the joint stock company) demands as a condition of its success the exercise of certain social qualities of inestimable value to the community life. It is for this reason, no doubt, that where men and women have learned to work together under this system in the business of their lives they are easily induced to use their organization for social and intellectual purposes. And let me remind readers who, like many of my most efficient associates in agricultural organization in Ireland, are not practical agriculturists, but devote themselves to the work from love of its higher ideals and aims, that a business association has some special advantages. Unlike other organizations which often depend upon the enthusiasm of a single individual, its economic advantage gives it permanence. Secondly, the men who come to the front are not always the best politicians or talkers, but those who make some solid contribution to the general welfare.

The new organization of the rural community for social as well as economic purposes, which would follow from the acceptance of the view I have taken, would bring with it the first effective counter-attractions to the towns. Their material advantages the country cannot hope to rival; nor can any conceivable evolution of rural life furnish a real counterpart to the cheap and garish entertainments of the modern city for those who care for these things. Take, for example, the extravagant use of electric light for purposes of advertisement, which affords a nightly display of fireworks far superior to the occasional exhibition at the Crystal Palace which was the rare treat of my childhood days.

Against all this a properly organized rural neighborhood could set a higher kind of attraction—the attraction summed up in the very word *neighborhood* I have just used. Once get the farmers and their families all working together at something that concerns them all, and you have the beginning of a more stable and a more social community than is likely to exist amid the constant change and bustle of the large towns, where, indeed, some thinkers tell us that not only the family but also the social life is badly breaking down. When people are really interested in each other—and this interest comes of habitually working together—the smallest personal traits or events affecting one are of interest to all. The simplest piece of amateur acting or singing done in a village hall by one of the villagers will arouse more criticism and more enthusiasm among his friends and neighbors than can be excited by the most consummate performance of a professional in a great city theater where no one in the audience knows or cares for the performer.

But if this attraction—the attraction of common work and social intercourse with a circle of friends—is to prevail in the long run over the lure which the city offers to eye and ear and pocket, there must be a change in rural education. At present country children are educated as if for the purpose of driving them into the towns. Of those delights which my Long Island friends feel in the country—because they have been taught to feel them—the country child feels nothing. The country offers continual interest to the mind which has been taught to be thoughtful and observant; the town offers continual distraction to the vacant eye and brain. Yet the education given to the country children has been invented for them in the town, and bears no particular relation to the life they are to live and the work they are to do.

The reform that is needed has two sides. We want two changes in the rural mind. The physical environment of the farmer is replete with interest to the followers of almost every branch of natural science. That interest must be communicated to the agricultural classes according to their capabilities. "Nature study," I believe, is the latest term of the pedagogues for the revelation of the simple natural processes; but to make these processes interesting to the child you must first make them interesting to the teacher. The second change in the outlook relates to the spiritual rather than to the utilitarian side of education. Somehow or other, that intimacy with and affection for nature to which Wordsworth has given the highest expression must be engendered in the mind of rural youth. In this way only will the countryman come to realize the beauty of the life about him, as through the teaching of science he will come to realize its truth.

Upon this reformed education as a basis the new rural economy will be built. It will be marked, in the first place, by the combination of the farmers for business purposes in a manner which will enable them to do, or to control, their own marketing, and to make use of the many advantages which a command of capital gives. In the second place, the new economy will mean a more scientific mastery of the technical side of farming; the farmers will make a much larger use of the advice, instruction, and help which the Nation and the States offer them through the Department of Agriculture and the colleges. In particular, they will develop a more intensive cultivation, and this must carry with it a much more careful consideration of the labor problem, resulting in better treatment for the laborer. The difficulty of getting and keeping labor on the farm is a commonplace. I think farmers have not faced the fact that this difficulty is due in the main to their own way of doing their business. Men will not stay at farm labor unless it offers them continuous employment as part of a well-ordered business concern; and this is not possible unless with a greatly improved husbandry. In the third place, there will arise a more intimate, more human social life in the rural districts, based upon the greater share of the products of the farmer's industry which the new business organization will enable him to retain, stimulated by the closer business relations with his fellows which that organization will bring about, and fostered by the closer neighborhood which is implied in a more intensive cultivation.

There is one particular aspect of this improved social life which is so important that it ought properly to form the subject of a separate essay; I mean the position of women in rural life. The rural exodus will never be stopped until something is done to give the farmer's wife a much better time than she has now. Her life must in any case be one of hard toil; she, like her husband, must begin the day's work in the early morning, and it will hardly be over by bedtime. What prospect is there that women who can choose will consent to continue this life unless its burden is lightened by a fair share of social recreation? The pleasures, the interests, and the duties of society, properly so called—that is, the state of living on friendly terms with our neighbors—are always more central and important in the life of a woman than of a man. The man needs them too; without them he becomes a mere machine for making money; but the woman deprived of them tends to become a mere drudge. The new rural social economy (which implies a denser population occupying smaller holdings) must, therefore, include the careful and complete organization of all those forms of social intercourse which specially appeal to women. The Women's Sections of the Granges have done a great deal of useful work in this direction; we need a more general and complete application of the principles on which they act.

There remains the practical question which every reader who is satisfied that the case for a country life movement has been made will ask. He will want to know what agencies are to lead public opinion along the rural road and direct the new activities which must be the outcome of the new thought if anything practical is to result. Restricting myself to the field of voluntary effort, I have two suggestions to offer.

It is generally recognized that the Conservation policy, in common with other policies, will require an organized public opinion at its back. This need the National Conservation Association has been established to supply. I suggest that this body should formulate and direct the country life movement, which, as I have endeavored to show, is a necessary complement of the sister policy. The complexity and difficulty of the subject has been amply illustrated, and I hope I have demonstrated its urgency. If the time has come, so has the man. President Eliot has been unanimously selected to preside over the National Conservation Association, to which should belong the leadership of the country life movement. Of his qualifications I need say no more than that we foreign students of these problems vie with his own countrymen in our appreciation of his public work and aims.[1]

The task of launching the new movement will consist of informing public opinion, and, above all, of helping rural communities towards a philosophic comprehension of their own problems. I have been greatly impressed with the increasing attention which is being directed to the end of a better rural life. In New York such beneficent agencies as the Carnegie, Rockefeller, and Russell Sage Foundations are doing their utmost to give the needed redirection to rural education. In several States I have found large numbers of people, especially school-teachers and leading professional men, uniting in a wide variety of schemes making for rural progress. I believe that many leaders of the rural Church are contemplating economic usefulness in their clergy. They would be invaluable agents for the propagation of the co-operative idea. But I cannot avoid the feeling that this work would become vastly more effective if there were some central agency which could look at and deal with the problem as a whole, and which, while stimulating and encouraging the several philanthropic agencies engaged upon the work, would insure that special attention is paid to the co-ordination of their efforts. It is in this last respect that the National Conservation Association will, in my judgment, perform its National service.

My second suggestion arises from my own experience, both in practical work and in the search for information for its guidance. I have been handicapped by the lack of scientifically collected data on many of the most important aspects of the country life question. It is strange how little the problems of the rural population have entered into the studies of economists and sociologists. At several universities I have sought in vain for light. At a recent anniversary in New York which brought together the leading economists of the Old and New World the programme (which certainly did not lack variety, and was generally held to be almost exhaustive) absolutely omitted the country side of things. The fact is, the subject is a new one, and those who do practical work upon the problem will need all the assistance they can get if their work is to be based on a solid foundation of fact.

I propose that an institution should be founded which might be called a Country Life Institute. It would be, in effect, a bureau of research in rural social economy. This institute would assemble what information already exists, examine and co-ordinate it, and lay down the lines of future investigation. We require, as far as possible, to carry exact statistical method into our work, so that we may no longer have to depend on general statements, but have evidence the significance of which can be measured. We require this on such problems as:

1. The influence of co-operative methods (*a*) on the productive and distributive efficiency of rural communities, and (*b*) on the development of a social country life.

2. The progress of rural and agricultural education and the study of the methods and provisions afforded in different countries.

3. The changes (*a*) in the standard and cost of living, and (*b*) in the economic

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[1] Since these pages were written President Eliot has been succeeded by Mr. Gifford Pinchot as head of the National Conservation Association. As Mr. Pinchot is the soul of the Conservation movement in America, no more admirable choice could have been made.

solvency and stability of rural communities.

4. The action taken by different Governments to assist the development and secure the stability of the agricultural classes, and the possibilities and the dangers of such action, with special reference to the delimitation of the respective spheres of State aid and voluntary effort.

5. How far agricultural and rural employment can relieve the problems of city unemployment and assist the work of social reclamation.

Some may think that the National Conservation Association should include in its functions the work assigned to the Country Life Institute which I have sketched. While all proposals for multiplying organizations in the field of social service should be critically examined, there are strong reasons in this case for the course I suggest. The National Conservation Association was started to stimulate and organize for action a nascent public opinion aroused by the disclosure of facts which were immediately recognized as demanding legislative attention. In the discussion which ensued the soil and its cultivation came into prominence in relation both to actual waste and to potential conservation. Thus it comes that no branch of public opinion is more important to inform, direct, and move to action than that which lies dormant in the mind of the rural half of the Nation. This, in brief, is why the country life movement is the logical supplement to the conservation policy. But in the promotion of that policy the National Conservation Association will inevitably be involved in controversy. The stoppage of waste will annoy the wasters. The organization of wealth-producers will not gain the support of organized distributers, and in many directions private interests may have to be subordinated to the public welfare. It will be essential, therefore, to the fulfillment of its purpose that the Association shall appeal to and obtain a wide popular support. It will need numerical as well as financial strength.

The proposed Country Life Institute is on a wholly different footing. It will not itself undertake active propagandist work, but will be a repository of facts, historical and contemporary, a source of helpful suggestion based upon the patient analysis of fact. It will be, in effect, a laboratory of research in rural social economy. Such an institution would not appeal to a very numerous public. Furthermore, while the Association should rely upon the annual subscriptions which its membership would provide in proportion as its activities were popular, the Institute would have to be permanently endowed. The man fitted for its chief control will not be found idle, but will have to be taken from other work. The scheme, as I have worked it out, will involve prolonged economic and social inquiry over a wide field, conducted mostly by post-graduate students. From those who do this outside work will be recruited the small staff which will have to get into the most accessible form the facts and opinions needed by those who are at work in the field of rural regeneration. My estimate of the amount required to do the work well is from forty thousand to fifty thousand dollars a year, or, say, a capital sum of, roundly, one million dollars. I cannot help thinking that if the conditions I have discussed in these pages were considered in their relation to the general scheme of rural progress, which I hope I have shown to be in a perhaps somewhat fluid state in the minds of the foremost thinkers in the United States, one of the world's wealthy benefactors who are frequently making striking contributions to the advancement of civilization would see that here is a real and a great opportunity. I have followed sufficiently closely the new rural improvement work now being undertaken by the trustees of great benevolent endowments to know that there are many others who, like myself, feel sorely the need of the help the proposed Institute is designed to afford. It takes more thought than busy men have time to give to the subject to enable them to see the substantial value of what may at first sight appear to be somewhat theoretic and abstract.

The thoughts to which I have given expression in the preceding pages are the slow growth of thirty years. They relate to one side of the life of a country which has been to me, as to many of my countrymen, a second home. I offer them in friendly recognition of kindness I cannot hope to repay, received largely from public-spirited Americans who I know would appreciate most highly any slight service to their country. If it has been my good fortune to have contributed to the solution of what I conceive to be a problem which affects seriously the future of American civilization, I shall be richly rewarded for the pains I have bestowed upon my endeavor to establish the National significance of "Better Farming, Better Business, Better Living."

THE NEW BOOKS

There has been in recent English writing no more interesting case of dual personality than that which was brought to light after the death of William Sharp, when it became known that he was the author of the books which had appeared under the pseudonym "Fiona Macleod." It is not a violation of language to speak of this double authorship, extended over a period of years, as in a certain real sense an expression of dual personality; for the books that bore the name of William Sharp were as different from the books which bore the name "Fiona Macleod" as if they had come from the hands of different writers. They were, in fact, the expression of two diverse temperaments—the one rational, modern, in a certain sense practical; the other spiritual, intuitive, Celtic in its sensibility to invisible and intangible things. The secret was well kept by a small group of people; and Mr. Sharp industriously and skillfully nourished and developed it until he created in the minds of many of his friends an imaginary person, a woman of great and rare beauty, enveloped in a certain mystery of temperament. He described her as a pure type of the elemental Celt, highly cultivated, of the finest strain of breeding, and with a certain sensitiveness amounting almost to genius. There are some of his friends who saw her photograph. As a matter of fact, "Fiona Macleod" was a shelter behind which he boldly and freely expressed the Celtic side of his own nature. During the last twelve years of his life that elemental side steadily pushed its way to the fore. He had won a place as a critic, an essayist, a writer of stories, and a poet, but he was also a seer of visions, possessed of a kind of second sight. In 1891, in Rome, he published a volume of verse, "Sospiri di Roma," which foreshadowed the special quality and phase of the work which was to follow. "Vistas" appeared two years later, and contained short dramatic sketches and studies of striking and impressionistic quality. In the sunshine and quiet of a little cottage in Sussex, Mrs. Sharp tells us, Mr. Sharp came under the influences of his early memories, and began to give expression of his vision of the beauty of the world, and out of this vision "Pharais" was born in 1894. Then came "The Mountain Lovers," "The Sin-Eater," "The Watcher of the Shroud," and three or four other volumes, including stories, dramas, and poems, with a volume of nature essays, "Where the Forest Murmurs." He described these tales as expressing the spirit of the old Gaelic, Celtic, and Scandinavian life and mythology; the voice of the old Gaelic genius, akin always to great felicities and great tragedies. This interesting work is now being published in a uniform edition under the editorial direction of Mrs. Sharp. The first volume, "Pharais," has an interesting dedication from Mr. Sharp, in which he endeavored to convey an impression of the gleam and shadow, the prose and poetry, of the Gaelic genius. (Duffield & Co., New York. Vol. I. $1.50.

Endowed with a sympathetic understanding of all men of whatever race or faith, equipped by technical training as a geographer, and prepared by a score of years devoted to Asiatic exploration, Dr. Sven Hedin (now Sir Sven Hedin), whose "Trans-Himalaya" has lately appeared, set out on his latest scientific pilgrimage, north of the great Himalaya Mountains. In July, 1905, Dr. Hedin received an encouraging letter from Lord Curzon, then Viceroy of India, and in October he left Stockholm for Tibet. Traveling via Constantinople across Asia and through India, he came to Simla, the summer capital of the English Government, in May. To his dismay he was met by a positive prohibition from London, and was not allowed to enter Tibet from the Indian frontier because of possible political complications. "Mr. John Morley closed the country as hermetically as ever the Tibetans had done," reflected the baffled explorer. But, as always, obstacles exist in Dr. Hedin's path only to be overcome. "Of course I never thought of giving in," he exclaims. The Indian Government favored the expeditions of experienced explorers, but the Imperial Government decided against them, thus preserving the isolation of Tibet. In some ways this hindrance, though it had lengthened his journey unnecessarily, was an advantage to Dr. Hedin, as he was left entirely free to make his plans. Lord Minto, successor to Lord Curzon as Viceroy, entertained him at the Viceregal Lodge and showed him unofficially every kindness. He traveled to Srinagar, the capital of Kashmir, where he was received by

Sir Francis Younghusband, of Tibetan experience. From there began his journey, ostensibly to Turkestan, as Tibet was no longer mentioned aloud. The story of the fitting out of his caravan is most interesting, that of its subsequent adventures is amazing.

For many months Dr. Hedin led his faithful servants through the mysterious inhospitable region known as Chang-Tang, lying between Kashmir and the banks of the Bramaputra, to Shigatse, where he arrived with no loss of men, but with a mere remnant of his train of pack animals. He was proud, at the close of his wanderings, to have gone carefully over a space marked "unexplored" on the latest maps of Tibet. He measured the altitudes of the peaks, sounded the depths of boisterous lakes, drew outline sketches of mountain chains, painted water-color portraits of Lamas and wandering nomads, and acquainted himself as far as possible with every detail of his surroundings. Dr. Hedin's extraordinary personality is impressed upon the reader and must have been wonderfully effective among his followers—Hindus, Mohammedans, Ladaks, and Tibetans. He is able to rivet our attention upon what in other hands would be a monotonous recital of wearisome days and nights, and we glow with communicated enthusiasm, just as his faithful men were filled with unswerving loyalty. It is the man's character that grips the imagination, and far transcends even his remarkable achievements. A master of diplomacy, known all over Tibet, yet he never aroused anger, and never really antagonized the Tibetans. He studied the country and mingled with the people as no other foreigner has ever done. He met the difficulties put in his way by English and Tibetan officials with unmoved courtesy and equally unmoved determination. An official stopped him when he was near Saka-dzong, and remonstrated, saying, "You travel and travel in Tibet, and you are always sent away, but you always come back again. How is it possible, and why are you come?" "Because," replied the Doctor, "I love your country and your friendly people to such a degree that I cannot live without them. . . . As long as I can sit in a saddle I shall come back. You can inform the Devashang at your leisure that their Excellencies may look for more visits." He did not show, because he never felt, the disastrous condescension of the European towards the Asiatic. His men loved him and Tibetan officials respected him, and gave him to understand their personal feeling to be, "If he likes to come back, he is welcome, as far as we are concerned." Dr. Hedin arrived in Shigatse in time for the New Year festival in honor of the victory of Buddha over the six heresies, and he was courteously welcomed by the Tashi-Lama, the religious head of Tibet. He is almost extravagant in his admiration of this remarkable man, whose truth and simplicity impressed him deeply. His account of the ceremonies, sports, and strange observances of this festival, held at the monastery of Tashi-Lunpo, near Shigatse, is both vivid and valuable. He was the honored guest of the Tashi-Lama, and is the only European who has ever witnessed the celebration.

In March Dr. Hedin was courteously but firmly invited to move on, or back, by the Chinese authorities, and he began his return journey, which was varied by many side excursions both north and south of the designated route. At this time he lost his valuable caravan leader, Muhamed Isa, who was buried on the banks of the Brahmaputra. He visited the sacred mountain Kailás, and proved that in this region, near Lake Manasarowar, lying at the foot of the mountain, are to be found the sources of three great rivers, the Indus, the Sutlej, and the Bramaputra. His rapturous enjoyment of the scenery, his study of the pilgrims and of the religion of the Lamas, mark him as unique among scientific explorers, for he never lost, in his geographical researches, the poetic and human feelings that make his book really fascinating. For almost two years he traveled about these great mountains, crossing eight passes, and during the latter part of the time disguising himself, with black painted face, in the ragged garb of a Tibetan shepherd. His heart's desire is to fasten the name Trans-Himalaya upon the chain of peaks through which he wandered. Lord Curzon indorses his choice, but there is some dissent from it, as is natural. Since his return some jealousy has been shown regarding his claim to the final and definite location of the sources of the three great rivers. But such questions will always arise, and it is enough for the reader to know that Dr. Hedin has been honored by his King and received by the highest geographical authorities in countries besides Sweden. This is his peroration, a worthy one to crown his courageous, devoted, and noble achievement: "Go, then, out into the world, thou ringing and sonorous name for one of the world's mightiest mountain systems, and find thy way into geographical text-books, and remind children in the schools of the snow-crowned summits on the Roof of the World, among which the monsoon storms have sung their deafening chorus since the beginning. As long as I live, my proudest memories, like royal eagles, will soar round the cold, desolate crags of the Trans-Himalaya." (The Macmillan Company, New York. $7.50.)

Mr. Winston Spencer Churchill is one of the three or four leading spirits in the Liberal Government which has just emerged from the general election in England with a sharply reduced majority. He was one of the most prominent figures in the election, and, together with Mr. Lloyd-George, the target for the bitterest attacks of the Opposition. The principal speeches which Mr. Churchill has made, in Parliament and elsewhere, during the past four years, are now published under the title "Liberalism and the Social Problem." To the reader who is interested in English affairs the book gives an excellent outline of the policies, tendencies, and sympathies of the Liberal party at the present time. The speeches deal with such topics as "Liberalism and Socialism," "The House of Lords," "Unemployment," "Labour Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance," "The Budget," "Land and Income Taxes." (Hodder & Stoughton, New York.)

The opportunity of knowing the Thrales was one of the happiest pieces of good fortune in Johnson's life; but it was one of the worst pieces of bad luck in Mrs. Thrale's life. Johnson's absurd conduct at the time of her second marriage has gone far to persuade the world that there was something criminal in what was at the very worst an ill-judged selection of a second husband. The Thrales gave Johnson the only home life he ever had after his childhood. They made him thoroughly comfortable, both in London and at Streatham, in the suburbs. They put all the books he wanted at his disposal, and surrounded him with friends. Mrs. Thrale made him presentable in dress and general appearance. For many years he went and came as he chose, always honored and beautifully cared for. His talk was a great feature at the Thrales' dinner table and a great card for Mrs. Thrale; but they gave him as much as he gave them, and at the end Johnson went far to spoil it all because Mrs. Thrale chose to marry an Italian singer, after a decent interval of widowhood. "Madame," he wrote, "if I interpret your letter right, you are ignominiously married. . . . If you have abandoned your children and your religion, God forgive your wickedness; if you have forfeited your fame and your country, may your folly do no further mischief!" To this and other language of the same kind the great lexicographer signed himself "Sam. Johnson," a most characteristic touch. Later the great man became somewhat penitent, and indulged himself in the pleasure of breathing out "one sigh more for tenderness, perhaps useless, but at least sincere." Lovers of Johnson, and there are many, are not greatly disturbed by this unfortunate incident, but it has seriously affected the general impression of Mrs. Thrale, and this volume sets out the relationship of the two very pleasantly. The Journals kept by Johnson and Mrs. Thrale on the occasion of their travel in Wales are incorporated in the volume, and a comparison of the records of two such dissimilar observers is full of entertainment. Lovers of Johnson will find Mr. A. M. Broadley's "Dr. Johnson and Mrs. Thrale" not without faults, but very entertaining. (John Lane Company, New York. $5.)

Mr. H. E. Marshall, of Oxford, knows how to write for young folks, as he has shown in his books on English and Scottish history. He calls his latest book "The Child's English Literature," referring, we take it, to children of all ages. Not often since Dickens wrote "A Child's History of England" has a more absorbing and readable book appeared having education as its object. The author's desire as expressed in his preface has been to produce a book which a child will read not as a task but as a pleasure. And he has chosen just the right way to accomplish his object. He takes his readers into his confidence; he appeals to their imagination and love of a good story. He weaves in enough history to show the relation of literature to every-day life. He is sparing in critical comment. He has introduced twenty full-page pictures in color, which form a delightful little history in themselves. As you read this book it is easy to picture the story-telling evenings about the open fire at home where the boys and girls are gathered to hear of the far-off days when the minstrels wandered from castle to castle singing their lays and telling their tales of love and adventure; of King Arthur and his Round Table; of Caedmon, the father of English song; of Bede, the father of English history; of Wyclif and the Bible; of Chaucer and the Canterbury Tales; and down through the years of literary endeavor to Keats, "the poet of beauty," and Carlyle, "the sage of Chelsea," and Tennyson, "the poet of friendship" (to use the author's happily chosen chapter headings). If there is a father or mother or uncle or aunt who seeks a pleasant experience, we advise that person to buy a copy of this book and read it aloud to the children. If the reader does not profit as much as the audience, it will be surprising. (Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York. $2.50).

Gilbert Chesterton is a writer who often puzzles his admirers, though he at least quite as often delights them with his pregnant humor, his brilliance of style, and his combination of seriousness of thought with freshness and unexpectedness of expression. Doubtless he knows what his latest book, "The Ball and the Cross," means, but he won't tell—at least he hasn't told in the book itself. It is the story of an unspoiled young man out of the "Celtic fringe," the most ardent of Catholics, and a Scotch atheist, who travel over England seeking a spot where they may fight a duel for the honor of their respective beliefs. Their combats are continually being interrupted, now by the approach of the police, now by one thing, now by another— But why describe the story, for it is (probably) an allegory, which in the end turns into a phantasmagoria. The adventures of the wandering duelists make good reading for a while, but the riot of the last few chapters is overpowering. We suspect that Mr. Chesterton had an idea as the basis of his allegory; we only wish he had not obscured it quite so completely. (John Lane Company. $1.50.)

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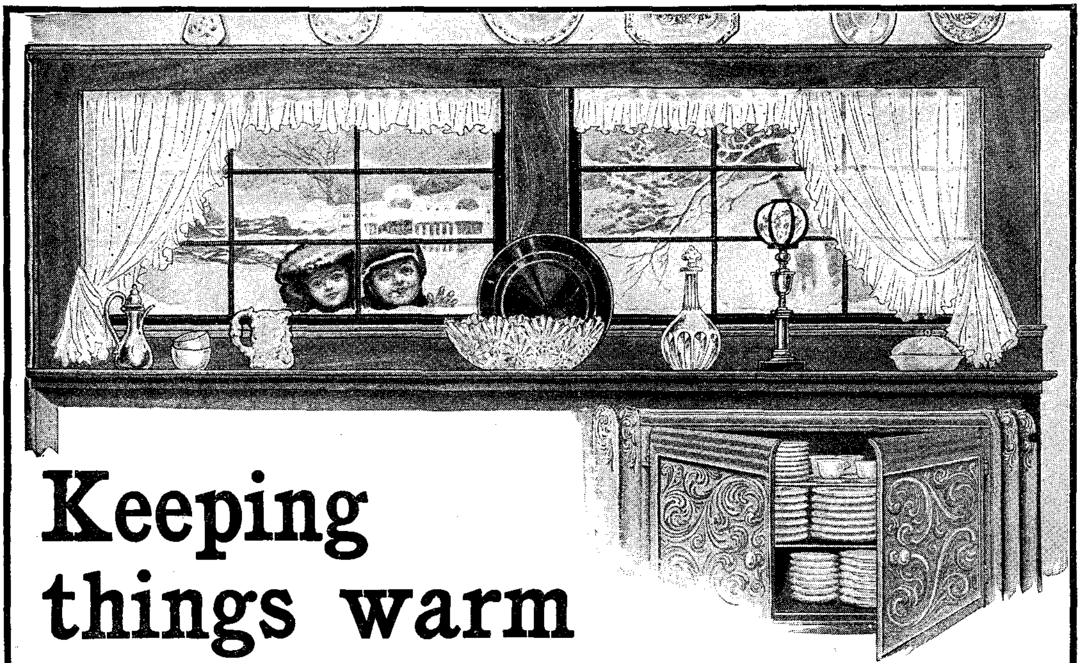
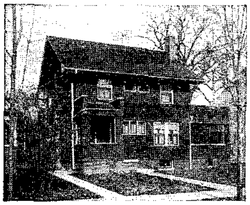


Keeping things warm

If some one is late to the meal, you can keep the food warm, or you can keep nice and hot those plates and dishes that must be served so, to be tasteful and relishable, by placing in your dining-room one of our oven-radiators.

AMERICAN & IDEAL
RADIATORS BOILERS

are the highest achievement in house warming and domestic economy. IDEAL Boilers save the cost of the entire outfit in a few years and AMERICAN Radiators distribute Florida weather throughout the house. Anyone can care for an IDEAL Boiler. It is automatic and absolutely safe. AMERICAN Radiators supply a gentle warmth without the dust and dirt of hot-air furnace, stove or open fire. They are designed as a part of the general scheme of home comfort, economy, and beauty and so made as to collect no dust. The oven-radiator is but one of many kinds designed to add comfort to the home and decrease labor.



A No. W-2-25 IDEAL Boiler and 500 ft. of 38-in. AMERICAN Radiators, costing the owner **$245**, were used to Hot-Water heat this cottage.

At these prices the goods can be bought of any reputable, competent Fitter. This did not include cost of labor, pipe, valves, freight, etc., which installation is extra and varies according to climatic and other conditions.

ADVANTAGE 16: Air must be supplied under the grate to the fuel in the fire-pot, in addition to a proper amount through the fire-door slide over the top or face of the fire to mix with the flame and free fuel-gases, and thus to cause good, sharp, complete combustion. In proportion as the right amount of air is supplied, at right points, the right economy in fuel is secured. The air-burning features of IDEAL Boilers are as fully developed as in the highest forms of modern gas and oil burners. Ask for our free catalog, "Ideal Heating," which tells all the advantages.

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Write to Dept. 40 Chicago

A Lenten Delicacy

YOU cannot judge Campbell's Tomato Soup by the price.

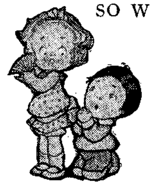
No better nor more satisfying soup is made at any price.

The choicest tomatoes that grow are raised in the New Jersey market gardens near our plant specially for this soup. And we put them up the day they are picked, using only the pure meat and thick juice. We flavor and season this most daintily with crisp tender celery, fragrant parsley, high-grade spices, and uncolored creamery butter. This soup contains no meat-product. It is not over-sweetened. It is seasoned just enough to bring out perfectly the natural spiciness of the tomato. The most critical taste is satisfied by the delicate racy flavor and creamy richness of

Campbell's Tomato Soup

It is served in many of the most luxurious and best-appointed homes, and on the most important occasions. It is exquisitely pure and wholesome. It contains no preservative nor coloring-matter. You can prepare it in three minutes. And it is condensed, so that it makes twice its volume of good rich soup.

There is no real substitute. Insist on Campbell's; and judge it for yourself. If not satisfied the grocer refunds the price. And so with all of Campbell's soups.



Sir: There's another in your way.
In vain your soft inflections!
He gives me *Campbell's Soup* each day;
And *warms* my young affections.

21 kinds 10c a can

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Mock Turtle
Chicken
Mulligatawny
Tomato-Okra
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Clam Bouillon
Mutton Broth
Celery
Beef
Julienne
Asparagus
Consommé
Pea
Bouillon
Printanier
Pepper Pot
Chicken Gumbo (Okra)
Vermicelli-Tomato

Just add hot water, bring to a boil, and serve.

Shall we send you a copy of Campbell's Menu Book, free?

JOSEPH CAMPBELL COMPANY, Camden N J

Look for the red-and-white label

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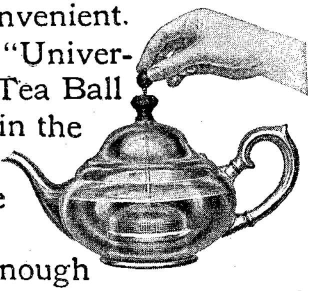
CONDENSED
21 KINDS
SOUP
JOSEPH CAMPBELL COMPANY
CAMDEN N.J. U.S.A.

The "Universal" Tea Ball Tea Pot

Every woman knows Tea leaves should not steep too long, that Tea Balls are drippy and inconvenient.

In the "Universal" the Tea Ball remains in the pot and, when the tea has steeped enough is raised from the water and suspended above it, inside the cover.



The last cup is just the strength of the first—and every cup Perfect Tea.

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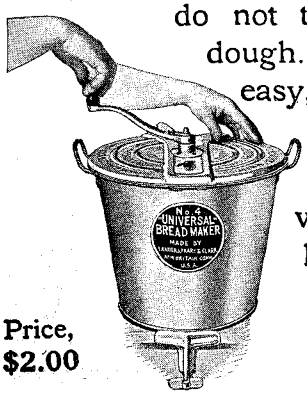
Mixes and kneads bread in three minutes. The hands do not touch the dough. Simple, easy, sanitary.

Does away with hand kneading.

Makes perfect bread.



Price, $2.00

The "Universal" Food Chopper

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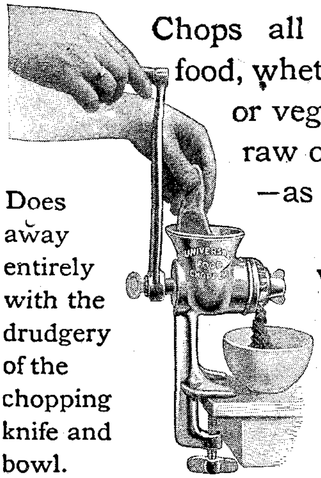
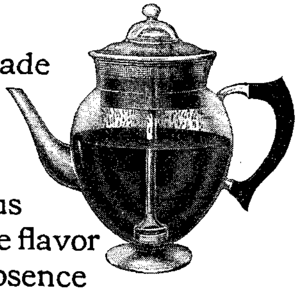


The "Universal" Coffee Percolator

Excels other ways of making coffee, because the percolation is completed before the water boils.

Coffee made in it is easily known by its delicious aroma, fine flavor and the absence of the bitter taste caused by boiling.



If you want to know what perfect coffee is like, try the "Universal."

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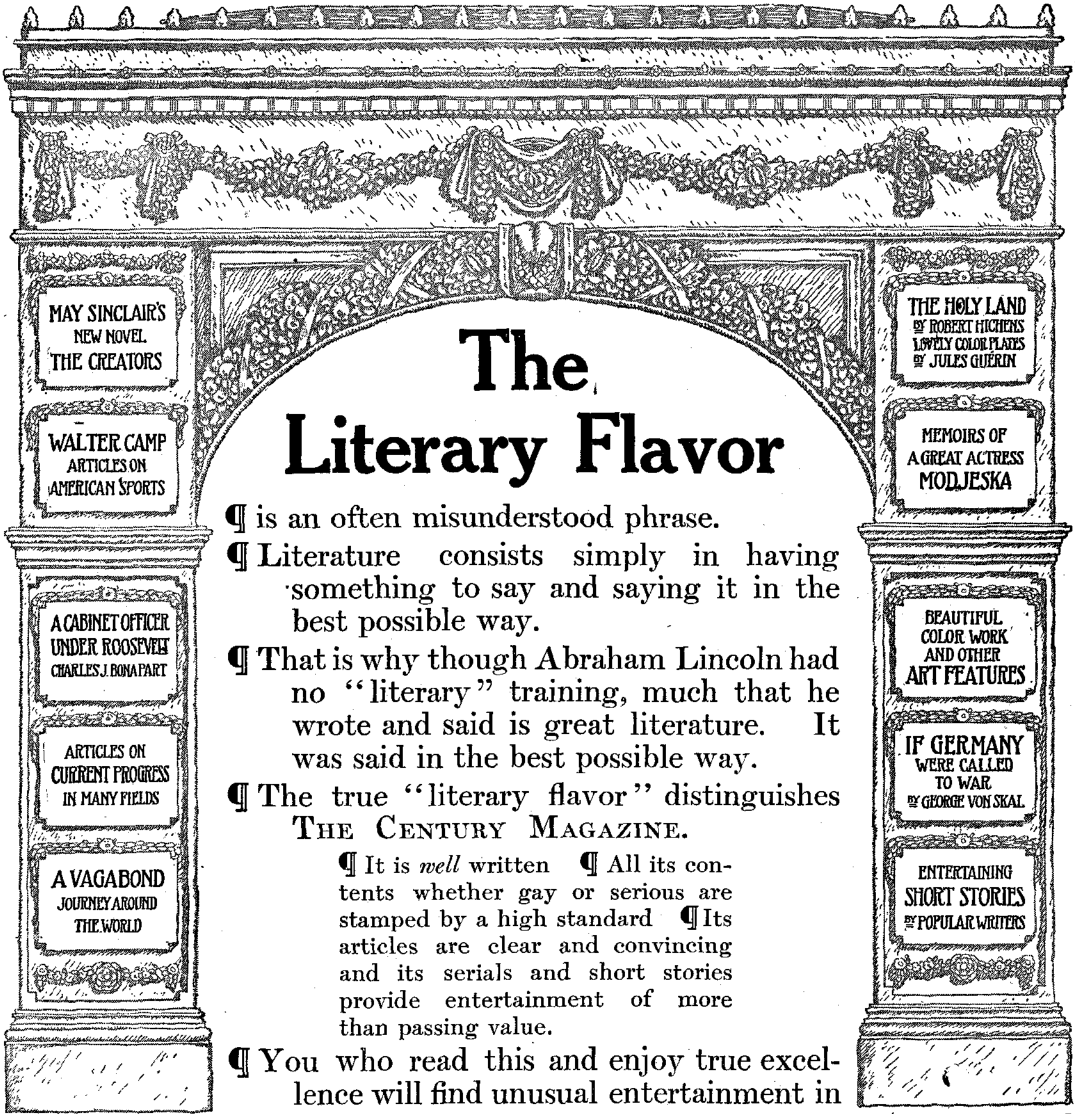
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